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THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

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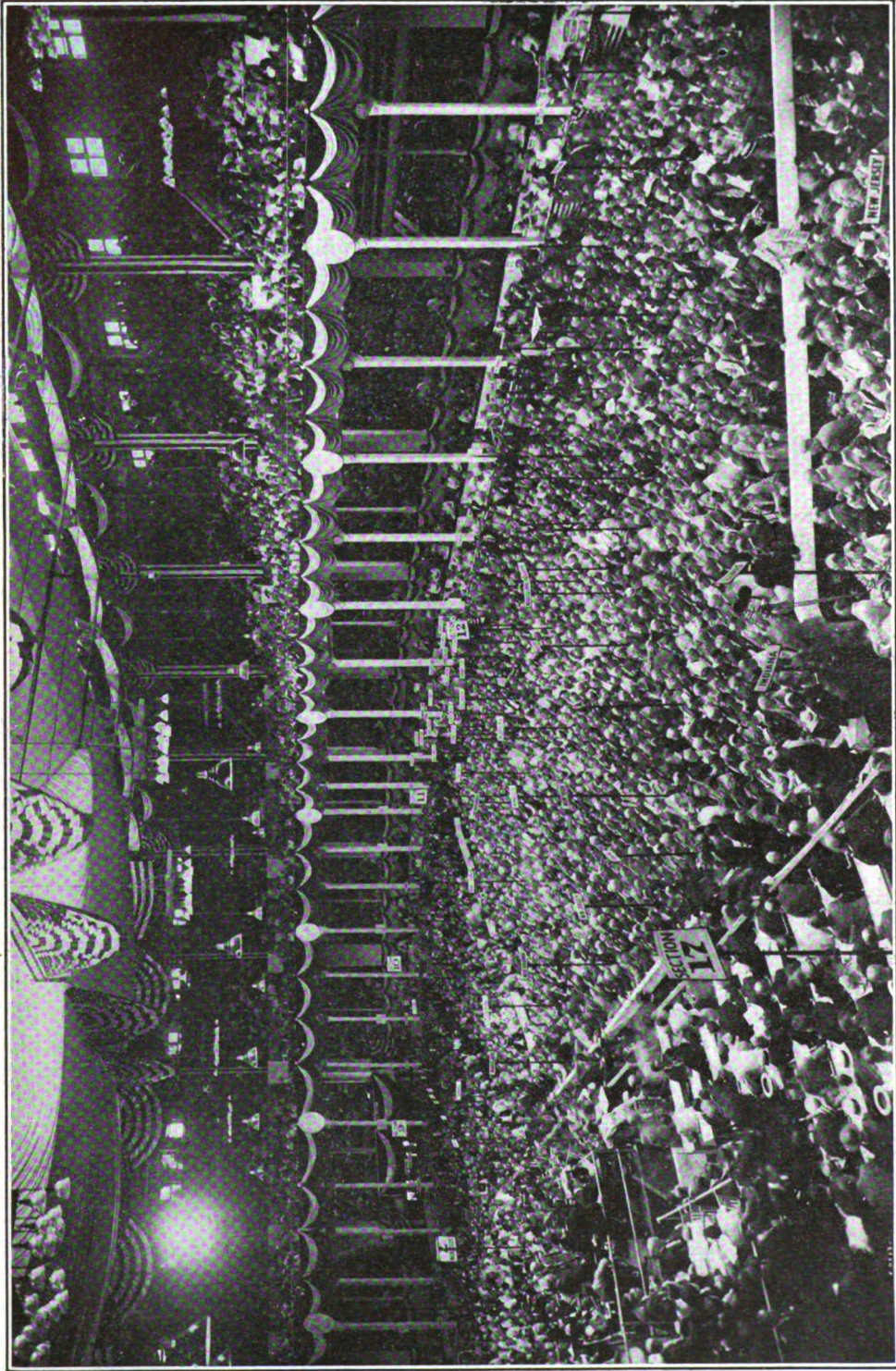
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THE DEMOCRATIC NATIONAL CONVENTION IN SESSION AT ST. LOUIS—JUNE 14-16.

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*Presidential
Candidates
Nominated*

For the first half of June, American politics forced the European war from the front pages of our newspapers. After the eighteenth, the Mexican situation took first place, with the European war second and our political situation third. Nominations had been made, platforms had been adopted, campaign committees were being organized, and the lull of several weeks had set in that always comes in a Presidential year between the completed work of the conventions and the opening of the active campaign. We are presenting elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW one article in appreciation of President Wilson and his administration, and another article upon the career of the Hon. Charles Evans Hughes, who is the chosen candidate of the Republican party. There will also be found articles on Vice-President Marshall and former Vice-President Fairbanks, who are the nominees for second place.

*Mexico
Supersedes
Politics*

Justice Hughes fired the first gun of the campaign as soon as he was named, on June 10, in a ringing message of acceptance. Boldly attacking the Wilson Administration, he declared in that statement that "we have suffered incalculably from the weak and vacillating course which has been taken with regard to Mexico—a course lamentably wrong with regard to both our rights and our duties." Mr. Hughes proceeded as follows regarding Mexico:

We interfered without consistency; and, while seeking to dictate when we were not concerned, we utterly failed to appreciate and discharge our plain duty to our own citizens.

The convention that unanimously renominated President Wilson finished its work on Friday, and the leaders were back in Washington on Saturday, the 16th. Mr. Wilson lost no time; but on Sunday, the 17th, answered Mr. Hughes by firing forthwith what will have been the heaviest political gun of the whole season, in the form

of a call to the troops of all the States for service on the Mexican border. This was followed two days later by an ultimatum to Mexico, accompanied by elaborate arguments so framed as to justify intervention on our part or any other course we might care to pursue. The President flatly refused to withdraw our troops from Mexico, and left it to the Carranza Government, which we had recently recognized, to decide for itself whether in its exhausted condition, with no hope of obtaining munitions, it would try to repel invasion, or would yield. On later pages we return to this subject.

*Democrats
and Their
"Loose-Feast"*

The Democratic convention at St. Louis moved precisely according to prearranged schedules. Hon. Martin H. Glynn, formerly Governor of New York, made the opening address, or so-called "keynote" speech; and this proved to be not only a skilful piece of political special pleading on behalf of the party in power, but a brilliant effort of great spirit, and of notable alertness in the advantageous use of every permissible point of argument. Later in the convention, Senator James, of Kentucky, as permanent chairman, made a powerful address defending the Democratic record at Washington. His presentation showed that the campaign for Mr. Wilson's reelection is to be led by men of no mean order of ability, who will go about their work with sincerity and conviction. The Democratic gathering was quite free from those yawning chasms of cleavage that separated factions and caused sensational struggles at Baltimore four years ago.

*Mr. Bryan in
Full Sympathy*

There was no voice to question the renomination of Mr. Wilson. The one-term plank in the Democratic platform of 1912 was omitted from the new platform and in every way ignored. Mr. Bryan was not a delegate, but was present as a reporter and visitor. He entertained the convention with a speech of



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MR. AND MRS. WILLIAM JENNINGS BRYAN
(Who were popular figures as visitors at all three of
the great Conventions)

party loyalty, and praise for the President whose Secretary of State he had been until affairs with Germany became critical—having also been the author of the one-term plank of 1912. Mr. Bryan's old-time antagonist, Senator Stone, of Missouri, now chairman of the Foreign Relations Committee of the Senate, was the chairman of the convention's committee on platform. But for everything and everybody associated with the Democratic term of power at Washington, Mr. Bryan had only words of glowing laudation. Thus the convention at St. Louis was what men like Mr. Bryan usually term a "love-feast." It lacked the sensations of controversy (except as there was some difference behind the scenes in agreeing upon parts of the platform); but its harmony was lifted out of dulness by a degree of enthusiasm that rose above previous expectations. We shall refer again to the platform, although the Wilson administration, in all its ways and works, appealing to the country for a vote of confidence and a further lease of power, is its own platform. The St. Louis resolutions, therefore, have not much actual importance, forming merely one of the documentary records of the convention along with the three or four principal speeches.

*The
Progressives
at Chicago*

While the results of the two Chicago conventions are well known to our readers, some re-statement of them here is in accordance with our editorial custom. The Republican convention opened on June 7 in the large Coliseum building, holding about 14,000 people. The Progressive convention began at the same time, in the Auditorium, where perhaps 5000 people were seated. Republican delegates numbered somewhat less than a thousand, and Progressive delegates somewhat more than that number. The Progressives had gone to Chicago definitely intending to nominate Theodore Roosevelt. The presiding officer of their convention was Mr. Raymond Robins, of Chicago, well known as a worker in the field of social and economic progress and in that of political reform. His opening speech was more eloquent and powerful than any other single convention effort of this season. In the enthusiasm that followed it, Mr. Roosevelt was virtually made the unanimous nominee of the convention, although the vote was not taken in a formal way until Saturday, the 10th, which was three days later. The Progressive convention was vibrant with earnestness and enthusiasm. It developed marked differences of opinion as to method of procedure. It was full of the kind of men who can make crisp speeches and are known as "live wires." It had no perfunctory half-hours. From the first day, the Progressive convention was determined to make its nominations promptly, adopt its platform, and adjourn. But it was ingeniously dominated by a group of leaders who had an impossible theory—as "practical" men so often have—and whose daily and hourly demand that the convention should give them time and trust their methods resulted in disappointment and humiliation.

*Fruitless
Efforts at
Bargaining*

This group of leaders was trying by private conference with the leaders of the Republican convention to bring about Mr. Roosevelt's simultaneous nomination by both parties. The methods employed made Mr. Roosevelt's cause in the Republican convention obviously hopeless from the start. There were a number of ways by which Mr. Roosevelt's nomination could possibly have been brought about. Of all the possible ways, the most improbable was the one actually employed. The decision of the Progressives to hold their convention at the same time and place as the Republicans was made six months ago. At that time the Progressives hoped to amalga-

mate with the Republicans. They had in mind an agreement upon candidates and platform, with the one crowning object of defeating the Democratic administration. They had not then expected to secure agreement upon Mr. Roosevelt as candidate. Nothing, indeed, seemed more unlikely. They had at that time several possible candidates in mind, foremost of these being Justice Hughes. Some of them had in mind Senator Cummins, who had always been a progressive Republican and who had actually supported Roosevelt in 1912 as against Taft.

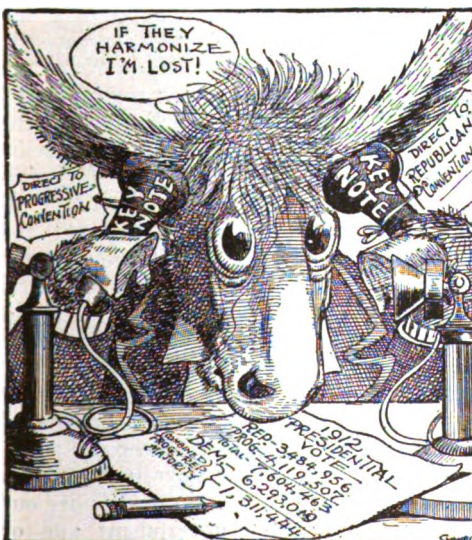
Too Ready for Compromise It is true that there were certain of the Progressive leaders who were hoping, even six months ago, to make Roosevelt the candidate of both Chicago conventions, but they had no real expectations. If they had been betting men, they would have refused to take an offer of 10 to 1 against Roosevelt's being the joint candidate of Progressives and Republicans. It is desirable that our readers should keep clearly in mind that the decision to hold the Progressive convention at the same time and place with the Republicans was in effect an abandonment in advance of the Progressive party as such. It meant that the Progressive leaders would make the best terms they could and rejoin the Republicans, with Roosevelt and Taft both out of the running. Even those who are not experienced politicians do not have to be told that a political party which has no real intention of putting its own ticket into the field and making its own fight has divested itself in advance of its in-



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RAYMOND ROBINS, OF CHICAGO, CHAIRMAN OF PROGRESSIVE NATIONAL CONVENTION

fluence and its moral power. The Progressive leaders had as much as said to the Republican leaders, "If you will make your platform fairly agreeable to us, and will nominate a ticket not offensive to us, we will support you as against Wilson and the Democrats." This was the situation in December and in January, when the Progressive executive committee made the preliminary arrangements and extended the olive branch. They were in a bad position for bargaining, because they had been unwilling to lead and to fight. They had already bargained away their power to bargain.



ANXIOUS WAITING
From the Los Angeles Tribune

A Transformed Situation Very soon, however, there came some swift and surprising changes in the political situation. The President's popular appeal for preparedness had resulted in an anti-climax when put to the test of actual measures, and Secretary Garrison had resigned from the Cabinet. The strong tide of public opinion was rising in favor of naval and military preparation; and the Democrats in Congress and in the Administration were not able to satisfy the

demand. Our position as a neutral was becoming increasingly difficult, and the performances of the Administration were bewildering in their inconsistency. Mr. Roosevelt had been saying strong things in articles and speeches for a year or two, and had seemed to many people extreme to the point of great rashness. But when these utterances were compiled and published in a volume entitled "Fear God and Take Your Own Part," which appeared in the middle of February, the country was catching up and the Roosevelt doctrines seemed to express the aroused apprehensions of millions of citizens. Just then Mr. Roosevelt went to the West Indies for a sojourn of some weeks, and in an interview at Trinidad he allowed it to be known that he might become a candidate if the country was in an "heroic mood" and was ready to accept his doctrines.

*Roosevelt's
Emergence
as Leader* On Feb-
ruary 15, the Hon.

Elihu Root had made his famous speech before the New York State Republicans, denouncing the Wilson foreign policies; and the result of this speech had been to help greatly in defining the principles which were likely to become issues in the campaign. The popular result of Mr. Root's speech had been to increase the demand for Roosevelt as a candidate, with the idea that Mr. Root would become Secretary of State. The attack of Mexican bandits upon the town of Columbus, followed by our military invasion of Mexico, with its fresh illustration of our dangerous lack of preparation for any kind of national emergency, still further altered the situation that had existed in January. From all parts of the country there came demands that Roosevelt should make speeches. He received a notable demonstra-

tion at Chicago; he afterwards journeyed to Detroit, where in a single speech he revolutionized local sentiment; and in another journey he went to St. Louis and spoke upon Americanism as against influences that he regarded as disloyal. By this time Mr. Roosevelt had become the foremost leader of opinion in the country, and had so proclaimed the dominant issues that he had perforce fixed the character of the platforms that were to

be adopted by the three leading parties. Just as in the period from 1875 to 1880 Mr. Gladstone, who had retired from politics, aroused England, shaped the issues, and arraigned the existing Tory government headed by Disraeli, even so Mr. Roosevelt had in a few speeches aroused the country as regards our national attitude upon world questions and had made himself the leader, as well as the exponent, of those directly opposed to the party in power.

*Parties and
Leaders in
America* It is in-
deed hard
to under-

stand a political system that operates in such fashion as to prevent the men who are really leading the country from being designated for formal leadership. A

great non-partisan Roosevelt movement had made itself manifest. Mr. Wilson was the exponent of certain views and methods. Mr. Roosevelt was the spokesman for those in opposition. In a system of parliamentary government, like that of England, France, Canada, Australia, Italy, or various other countries, Mr. Roosevelt would have entered the elections with a view to becoming prime minister and head of the government if his views had prevailed at the polls. Under our system of Presidential government and of parties which do not represent public opinion, but which are mechanical aggregations of

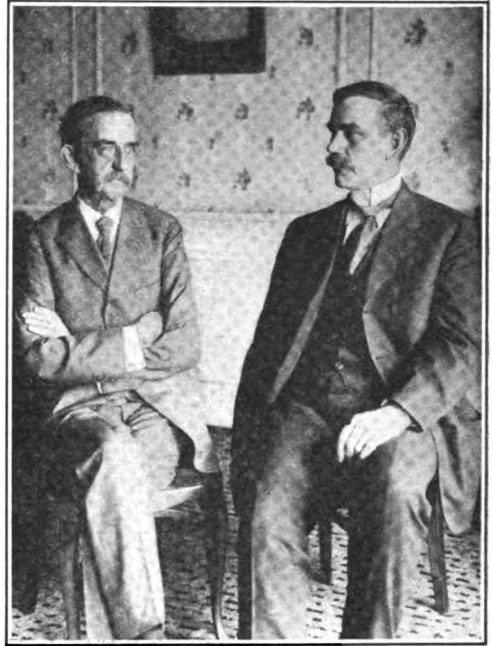


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THEODORE ROOSEVELT AT SAGAMORE HILL

local politicians, the real leader is sometimes named and is sometimes rejected. It is not necessary to recount the conspicuous illustrations of this fact that our history affords.

The Mistake of Leaving It All to "Parties" We have often seen in our American politics how parties fail to serve public opinion responsively, evading and resisting such opinion, and so shaping alternatives that the sweep of the popular will is obstructed. The great mistake, therefore, of those who really wished to have Mr. Roosevelt appear at the polls as a Presidential candidate lay in their leaving the matter in the hands of two political parties, neither of which directly represented those issues for which Mr. Roosevelt stood and that will have to be dealt with in the campaign. The assumption that our "parties" are patriotic is not based upon sound observation. There had, indeed, been formed a non-partisan Roosevelt League, and there were great patriotic societies and or-



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EX-SENATOR W. MURRAY CRANE, OF MASSACHUSETTS, AND SENATOR REED SMOOT, OF UTAH, CHIEF MANAGERS FOR THE REPUBLICANS



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MR. GEORGE W. PERKINS

(Chairman of the Executive Committee and chief manager for the Progressives)

ganizations that believed in his principles. All over the country there were people who desired to support him, not for reasons of a personal sort, but because they believed that in this crisis of world affairs, in which America is profoundly involved, Roosevelt was the man best qualified by training, conviction, experience; and efficiency in practical statesmanship to be the executive head of the nation. This non-partisan movement had come up with great swiftness, and it was not a wholly easy matter to give it form and coherence. But it should have placed Mr. Roosevelt in nomination and asked his prompt acceptance.

The Right Way to Proceed

The executive committee of this genuine American movement should have led the way. It should then have offered its candidate and the leading planks of his platform to the regular political parties for their endorsement. The Progressive convention would have accepted the invitation with enthusiasm on its first day, June 7, and would have adjourned. These two steps would have insured to Mr. Roosevelt the support of very much more than half of the total opposition to the Democratic administration. If we should here proceed to declare that the Republican convention in turn would have rati-



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SENATOR BOIES PENROSE, OF PENNSYLVANIA, AS HE APPEARED AT CHICAGO

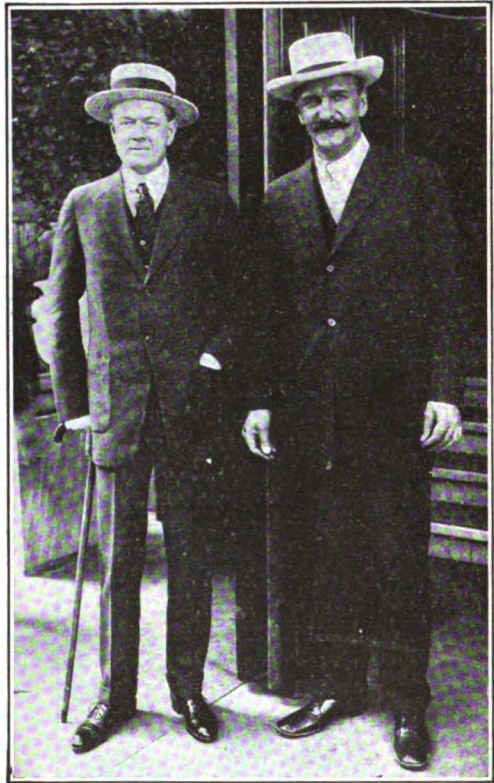
(Mr. Penrose was supposed to be favorable to the nomination of Colonel Roosevelt)

fied the choice, there are many to retort that nothing of the kind would have happened. Nevertheless, with entire calmness, we assert that the Republican convention must have nominated Mr. Roosevelt, under the irresistible pressure of the sentiment of the country, not for personal reasons but because of the logic of the situation. The times are abnormal throughout the world. No country but ours would pretend for a moment to put itself in the hands of the cut-and-dried old party machines. Neither Democrats at St. Louis nor Republicans at Chicago showed themselves fit agents at this time to assume the control of our Government. The Democrats were exhibiting a shallow enthusiasm and a specious harmony at a time when their Administration was floundering in difficulties and dealing fatuously with incidents and symptoms rather than with principles. The Republicans at Chicago were a deadly dull and perfunctory body, without leadership, without moral force, and without sentiment. They seemed to be restrained from natural human behavior by a sort of sinister pall that was cast over their deliberations—perhaps by the memory of the pitiable eight electoral votes received by their once great party in the last election. The Progressives were a spirited body, but futile because their brief story lay all in the past. They seemed con-

scious of sitting by, and waiting, while their leaders were bargaining them into oblivion as an organization.

The Progressives' Futile Sacrifice

The only method by which the Progressives could have influenced the Republicans was one that they were forbidden by their leaders to employ. They could have nominated Roosevelt promptly and adjourned. They could have appealed to the country; they could have demanded the support of all the non-partisan influences that favored Roosevelt. Mr. Roosevelt thereupon, instead of "declining conditionally," could have accepted conditionally; taking his own good time for deliberation. The Republicans should have been asked to coöperate if they so desired, but not urged by men outside the Republican membership. The Republicans would under these circumstances, in spite of themselves, have named Mr. Roosevelt—not for any personal reasons, but because of the fact that



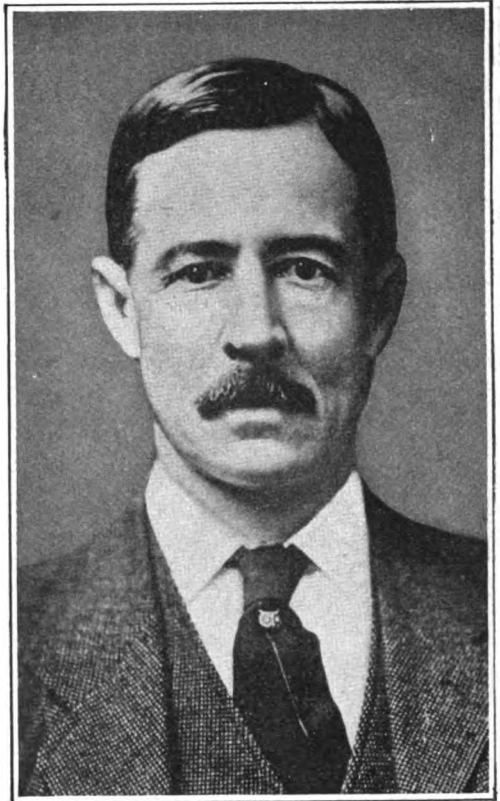
HON. T. COLEMAN DU PONT (ON THE RIGHT) AND MR. FRANK HITCHCOCK

(Mr. Du Pont was named for the Presidency in the Republican Convention by the delegates from Delaware. Mr. Hitchcock is said to have transferred his remarkable political abilities to the support of Justice Hughes and was active at Chicago)

there are real issues at stake and that political parties are sometimes compelled to recognize facts. Even Tammany Hall was forced in more than one party crisis, by the logic of conditions, to support Grover Cleveland. Furthermore, it happened that nearly every one of the active candidates whose names were before the convention—Senator Cummins, Mr. Root, Senator Weeks, Mr. Fairbanks, Senator Sherman, Mr. Burton, and others—could have supported Colonel Roosevelt under existing conditions with vigor and cordiality. While, therefore, the Republican convention could have been influenced by facts accomplished, it could not be bargained with in advance by a party that was generously proposing to commit suicide. When the Progressive leaders allowed important members of the Republican convention to understand that Roosevelt would not make the run unless the Republicans should nominate him, they had sacrificed their leverage.

How the Republicans Were Disappointed

The Progressives made the error of taking the initiative by soliciting a conference. Accordingly, the chairman of each convention named five men. The Progressives offered Mr. Roosevelt as a joint candidate; but the Republican committee, naturally, had no power either to accept him or to offer anybody on their own part, because their convention had not yet expressed itself. The membership of the Republican convention had largely been selected or chosen with explicit reference to its anti-Roosevelt reliability. It was not representative of the later developments of Republican sentiment in the country. It was morally impossible to secure strength for Mr. Roosevelt in that Republican convention, unless assurances could be given that Roosevelt would run anyhow, quite regardless of what the Republicans might do. Privately, there



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JOHN M. PARKER OF LOUISIANA

(A leader in the Progressive Convention, who was nominated for Vice-President)

were great numbers of delegates in the Republican convention who desired to be compelled by events to break the shackles that bound them, and join in a stampede for "T. R." But they could not do this unless they knew that the country was going to make T. R. a great non-partisan candidate, on the basis of his assured acceptance of the call, with the further certainty that the millions who voted the Progressive ticket four



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THE SPIRIT OF THE TWO CHICAGO CONVENTIONS
From the Tribune (Chicago)



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

THE CONFERENCE COMMITTEE APPOINTED BY THE REPUBLICAN AND PROGRESSIVE CONVENTIONS IN AN ENDEAVOR TO AGREE UPON A CANDIDATE ACCEPTABLE TO BOTH PARTIES

[Seated, from left to right: Senator Reed Smoot (R), George W. Perkins (P), W. Murray Crane (R), Charles J. Bonaparte (P), A. R. Johnson (R). Standing, from left to right, Horace Wilkinson (P), Governor Hiram Johnson (P), Senator William E. Borah (R), Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler (R), and John M. Parker (P)]

years ago would vote for him again in a year when the call was ten times as imperative as it was then. To be sure, the Republican leaders said this course would be "resented" and would compel the Republican convention to stand upon its dignity and nominate somebody else. All of which was a mere pose, and the most obvious nonsense. The Republican convention—unable to act primarily—was waiting anxiously to be compelled by public opinion and the Progressives to nominate T. R. But at that very moment of opportunity the Progressives and T. R. failed the Republicans; so that the convention of Senator Harding, Mr. W. Murray Crane, Senator Reed Smoot, and Mr. James Watson was obliged, in spite of its inmost feelings and desires, to do what seemed to its members the next best thing.

*The Rise of
Hughes in
Politics*

Considering the makeup of this Republican convention—and further considering that it was not allowed to do the thing it really wanted to

do—the thing it actually did, in spite of itself and against its instincts, was highly commendable. It could not have Roosevelt, so it took Hughes. Twice the Republican party of the State of New York had nominated for the Governorship Charles Evans Hughes, an austere reformer and scholarly lawyer whom it did not like. Political parties often have to do these good things, that go against the grain. So rapidly did Governor Hughes rise in the estimation of the country that he began to be widely talked about as "Presidential timber." He would probably have been nominated in 1912; but Mr. Taft, who also recognized his growth in power as well as in demonstrated fitness, removed him from the political arena by placing him on the bench while he was still Governor of New York and engaged in a hard fight for his reform measures. It was this elevation of Mr. Hughes to the bench that left a situation in New York which drew Mr. Roosevelt back into politics against all his plans and desires. Governor Hughes

would have continued his fight, would have served out his term, would have been made a candidate before the primaries in 1912, and would have been nominated over Taft with Roosevelt's support. In that case Woodrow Wilson would not have been nominated at Baltimore; for it was the Republican split at Chicago which made Mr. Wilson's success possible in the Democratic convention. Mr. Hughes as the Republican candidate would have defeated Champ Clark as the Democratic nominee, and American history during the past three years and four months would have been made in a very different way—though we do not know just how.

*How Hughes
Was Sought
in 1910*

Having been put on the bench, however, in the fall of 1910, Mr. Hughes was not involved in the Republican controversies of 1912. For that reason he was regarded as especially available when the search began, a year or two ago, for a candidate who could reunite the shattered party. He was intellectual, virile, industrious, honest, and courageous. It was at first the Progressives rather than the Republicans who had Hughes chiefly in mind. But many Republicans, especially in the West, thought favorably of him and desired to vote for him in the Republican primaries. They were forbidden to take this step by the Justice himself. There was much speculation on the point whether he would



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

HON. CHARLES E. HUGHES (ON THE RIGHT),
WITH HON. WILLIAM R. WILLCOX, AS PHOTO-
GRAPHED IN NEW YORK LAST MONTH



① Photograph by Underwood & Underwood

MR. ANDREW B. HUMPHREY, OF NEW YORK
(Who was one of the most earnest of the Hughes
supporters at Chicago)

accept if nominated. His refusal to say that he would decline a nomination was, however, taken to mean that he would probably accept if his nomination promised to unite the two parties, and came as a call to public duty in a period of exceptional issues. The Republican convention was led to believe that if it nominated Justice Hughes he would accept and would be supported by Colonel Roosevelt and most of the Progressives. Many candidates were put in nomination and were voted for on Friday afternoon, the third day of the convention, two ballots being taken.

On the morning of Saturday, the fourth day, a third ballot was taken which resulted in the choice of Justice Hughes by an overwhelming majority, at once made unanimous. Meanwhile the Progressives in session at the Auditorium had on Saturday morning nominated Colonel Roosevelt, as soon as they learned that the Republicans were about to nominate Justice Hughes. A reply was telephoned from Oyster Bay, where Colonel

*Convention
Climaxes*

Roosevelt had remained at his home, saying that the nomination would be declined if an immediate answer were desired. It was added, however, that the declination could be regarded as conditional if referred to the Progressive National Committee for later consideration and for conference with Colonel Roosevelt. The meeting of the National Committee was set for June 26, at Chicago. It was supposed that Colonel Roosevelt would recommend the support of Justice Hughes, after the Republican candidate had declared himself in a satisfactory way upon the issues of the campaign. Justice Hughes lost no time, on June 10, while the conventions were still in session, in resigning from the bench and in making a brief statement accepting the nomination and announcing his general attitude. Further and more detailed expressions of Mr. Hughes' position were to be made in his address of acceptance to the formal visit of the notifying committee on a date unfixed. Advance information would, of course, be available for the Progressive committee at Chicago; and it was relied upon by the Hughes supporters as likely to secure Colonel Roosevelt's endorsement, and the favor of many if not all of the Progressive committeemen and leaders.

*Mr. Roosevelt
in These
Times*

Many persons have understood Mr. Roosevelt's position in recent months, and some have not. He has intensely advocated certain views, and has unsparingly criticized the Administration and the Democratic Congress. He has done this as a public leader, but not as a self-seeker. If he had been maneuvering for a nomination, he could have secured it. His desire was to promote certain public ends. He favored the union or cooperation of parties because he sought results. He would have been willing to lead as a candidate only if his services were clearly desired. His spirit and his conduct have been wholly patriotic and unselfish. Whether or not he has been right in his attacks upon the Wilson administration, he has been sincere; and his motives have not been personal. Through the preliminary campaign he declared repeatedly that he was neither for nor against any candidate. That he will strongly support Mr. Hughes if he finds it possible to do so is the general understanding.

*Democratic
Advantage in
this Campaign*

Election Day does not come until November 7. The campaign will be waged vigorously during the months of September and Octo-

ber. There will be ample time for the expression of views and the development of issues. No citizen need be in any haste to make up his mind how he will act. As we remarked in these pages last month, President Wilson will probably make a strong run, and no one can now predict the outcome. Those who work for Mr. Wilson's reelection will work valiantly. He himself will take the stump with all his intellectual acumen, his fascinating oratory, and his advantage of position. Being in supreme power, he can pull strings and make things happen by way of illustrating or enforcing his arguments. Mr. Hughes will be at a marked disadvantage for several reasons. One of these is the dangerous and shallow tradition that the citizen must not say all that he really knows or believes in criticism of the actions of the man in high office, but must show loyalty to the country by following the President's leadership because he is head of the nation. In England you may not criticize the King, but you may criticize the Prime Minister and the Cabinet. In this country you may not criticize the President, even though his practical power for good or for evil is much greater than that of King and Prime Minister put together.

*"Standing by"
the President*

Even the New York *Tribune*, which has been perhaps the boldest newspaper in its criticisms of the Administration, declared on June 20 that the Mexican crisis must oblige the people of the United States to "stand" unitedly and whole-heartedly "by" President Wilson, although beyond the shadow of a doubt the *Tribune* believes this particular crisis was a result of our own policies—just as it believes that a long series of so-called "crises" in our relations with Germany, were, in their specific aspects, initiated at Washington. The *Tribune*, indeed gives a plausible reason for its position of the 20th. It says that the only chance of peace lies in Carranza's recognition that the United States would back its own government if war were forced. Foreign crises, artificially created and skilfully timed for effect, are not easy things to meet in a political campaign. Mr. Hughes will certainly find himself baffled and embarrassed before the campaign is over by the subtlety, resourcefulness, and amazing fertility in the staging of foreign crises that those now exercising power at Washington can display through the next four months. Millions of voters are impressed by headlines, are moved by the newest sensations, do not

think deeply, and forget what happened six months ago. In the face of the newest Mexican situation, how many voters will turn back to read again Elihu Root's unsparing analysis of the earlier phases of Mr. Wilson's dealing with the Mexican problem? Mr. Hughes will need the best aid that Colonel Roosevelt, Mr. Root, and all the other masters of American policy can bring to his campaign. But, even then, both candidate and supporters will be hampered by the tradition that we must rally around the President and support him loyally, provided only he has led us into a situation that is really serious. Thus the best cards at this stage of the game are in President Wilson's hands, and are likely so to remain.

Our Methods with Mexico

There are certain aspects of the Mexican situation that all American citizens should keep in mind. We have been greatly occupied with Mexican affairs while asserting that we were standing aloof in order to allow Mexico to fight it out and adjust her own future. We forced Huerta's downfall by implacable opposition, exhibited in many forms and including the seizure by naval and military force of Mexico's chief seaport, Vera Cruz. We favored the Carranza-Villa movement and supplied it with arms and ammunition. Later on we favored Villa in his warfare against Carranza. When Villa failed we gave countenance to Carranza and recognized him as head of the *de facto* government. The Villa elements were reduced to a state of marauding and brigandage in northern Mexico. Our abandonment of them and refusal to supply them with munitions embittered them, and they sought to embroil us with the Carranza government. In this purpose they were remarkably successful because of our lack of a definite policy of our own, and our apparent inability to adjust ourselves to facts and conditions.

Our Invasion in March

Since we had undertaken to guard our frontier, we might have guarded it well. Instead of which we guarded it badly. The bandit attack upon the town of Columbus owed its measure of success to the fact that the officers who should have been on duty were off at another town partaking in certain social festivities. To chase the bandits across the line and pursue them was so obviously proper that nobody of trained intelligence would pause to discuss the question. And this was what our soldiers actually did on the day of



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PRESIDENT WILSON, AS HE MARCHED IN WASHINGTON AT THE HEAD OF THE "PREPAREDNESS PARADE" ON FLAG DAY, JUNE 14

the raid. But the authorities at Washington proceeded to do something wholly different. They strained all the existing resources of our regular army to organize a military expedition for the invasion of Mexico. Preparations occupied a number of days. Villa and his appearing and disappearing little group of bandits were by that time hundreds of miles away, with inaccessible hiding places always available in mountain mazes where the few inhabitants were Villa's friends. Without the consent and against the protest of the government of Mexico which we had recognized, we proceeded with a British-like valor and a British-like stu-



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A BAND OF VILLA'S IRREGULAR FOLLOWERS ON A LOOTING EXPEDITION
(The scene illustrates typically the country and the peons of northern Mexico)

pidity, without sufficient equipment, to march southward about 300 miles into the heart of Mexico. We paralleled a railroad built by American capital, which we did not use because the Mexicans forbade us, although it was highly absurd not to seize it and use it. We avoided towns and cities, having agreed in advance to do so. This was three months and a half ago. The friction along the border became much worse, because the Mexicans were highly incensed, whether or not with reason. We needed our troops to protect the border; but 15,000 of them were halted uselessly on a long line extending southward into Mexico.

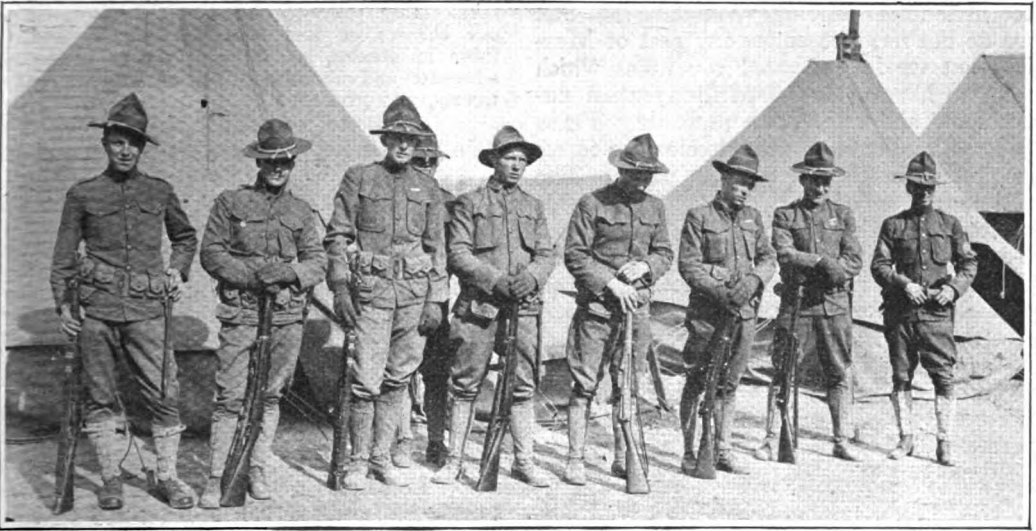
When these sentences were written, late in June, our invading force had remained in this seemingly impossible position for a period longer than that which some of the great wars of history have required. At one point or another on the fringes of our extended line, detachments of our men have incidentally come into conflict with irregular bands of Mexicans. But we were taking no steps to reduce the country to order. Quite naturally the Mexicans were begging us to withdraw to our own side of the line, in order that they

might allay apprehensions and avoid war with the United States. But the authorities at Washington refused to withdraw until Carranza had suppressed brigandage and restored order in northern Mexico. We had moved into Mexico in the first instance on the theory of helping Carranza get rid of his enemies and restore order. We had remained in Mexico as an irritating cause of growing wrath against the United States, until the lesser hatreds of Mexicans for one another were lost in their larger hatred of the "Gringos," as they called the people of the United States. The particular thing we had done was without apparent value from the military standpoint, and could not be explained on any theory of our professed policies. It was an act of irritation comparable only with the bombardment and seizure of Vera Cruz in April, 1914.

*Calling Out
the State
Troops*

Suddenly, on Sunday, the 18th, taking Congress as well as the country by surprise, President Wilson, through Secretary Baker, of the War Department, called upon the States to mobilize their militia and National Guard for the protection of the Mexican border. This meant that more than 100,000 men

*Waiting—for
What?*



From the Press Illustrating Service

UNITED STATES SOLDIERS ON GUARD AT THE BORDER

were required to meet in their respective armories or designated places of rendezvous, prepared to be sent southward whenever ordered. The call was due to dispatches from General Funston indicating increased friction on the border, and a growing danger that our 15,000 men, waiting needlessly and inertly on the long line south of the Rio Grande, might be assailed by large forces or even cut off. Minor raids had occurred on the border, though by very few Mexicans and easily repelled. We had meanwhile, some weeks ago, strengthened the border forces until about 20,000 men were scattered along the 1500-mile line, in addition to the 15,000 of whose services we were deprived because we had placed them where they could accomplish nothing except to provoke the Mexicans and

make the guard duty of the 20,000 vastly more difficult. If the 15,000 had been promptly brought back to reinforce the long patrol on our side of the boundary, we should have had nothing further to fear from raids, and the people of Mexico would have become more friendly in their feeling.

*The
Dominating
Motive*

It is not strange that the Mexicans should have been distrustful and provoked to the point of desperation. There is no nation on the earth, civilized or savage, that could have endured such an indignity with greater self-restraint than the Mexicans have shown. Theirs is a chaotic country, wholly incapable of democratic self-government; but they have intense sentiment, and we have treated them with



From the Press Illustrating Service

UNITED STATES TROOPS MARCHING THROUGH A PUEBLO IN MEXICO

too little understanding. We have said that we do not mean to annex any part of Mexico; but we have created conditions which seem to have made armed intervention unavoidable and annexation probable. Texas and the Southwest are the dominating forces at present in the Democratic party. The real purposes of the Southwest towards northern Mexico are not much disguised. No country ever avows armed occupation and annexation as its ultimate object. England took Egypt on the pretext of restoring order. Austria took Bosnia for temporary purposes of administrative reform. We can only await developments in order to discover what is the real purpose of the Democratic administration toward Mexico.

*Intervention
the Apparent
Object*

It was at least reasonable to conclude that the military expedition under General Pershing was designed to bring about armed intervention and occupation, because it could be explained upon no other theory. Its persistence in remaining as against Carranza's protests points to the same conclusion. The calling out of at least 100,000 more men leaves no further room for serious doubt. Mexico has fought itself to the point of complete financial exhaustion. It could not pay for military supplies even if there were any source from which they could be derived. Europe has none to spare, and Japan is serving Russia at a high profit. South America does not deal in war goods. Furthermore, the blockading of Mexican ports would be an easy task for our navy. The seizing of Tampico, Vera Cruz, and other ports on both coasts could be accomplished by naval bombardment without loss of men on our part. Carranza's armies have enough rifles and cartridges, thanks to our recent policy, to make a brief and fierce resistance, and to sadden many an American home. But their supplies would not avail for regular warfare beyond a few days or weeks. They know this, and could have no hopes of success in armed strife with their great neighbor.

*Mexico
in Party
Platforms*

It is instructive to note the planks in the party platforms on the Mexican issue. It is hard to make out what the Republican plank means, unless it is intended as a call for prompt intervention by force. It sweepingly denounces the Mexicans themselves and our own Administration alike, and ends with the following words:

We pledge our aid in restoring order and

maintaining peace in Mexico. We promise to our citizens on and near our border, and to those in Mexico, wherever they may be found, adequate and absolute protection in their lives, liberty, and property.

The Progressive platform has the following:

Failure to deal firmly and promptly with the menace of Mexican disorders has brought conditions worse than warfare and has weakened our national self-respect. Every resource of Government should be forthwith used to end these conditions and protect from outrage the lives, honor, and property of American men and women in Mexico.

Certainly nothing could be stronger in words than these pronouncements of the two Chicago conventions. The Democratic plank at St. Louis was carefully shaped to support exactly what the Administration had already done. It reads as follows:

The want of a stable, responsible government in Mexico, capable of repressing and punishing marauders and bandit bands, who have not only taken the lives and seized and destroyed the property of American citizens in that country, but have insolently invaded our soil, made war upon and murdered our people thereon, has rendered it necessary temporarily to occupy, by our armed forces, a portion of the territory of that friendly state. Until, by the restoration of law and order therein, a repetition of such incursions is improbable, the necessity for their remaining will continue. Intervention, implying, as it does, military subjugation, is revolting to the people of the United States, notwithstanding the provocation to that course has been great, and should be resorted to, if at all, only as a last resort. The stubborn resistance of the President and his advisers to every demand and suggestion to enter upon it is creditable alike to them and to the people in whose name he speaks.

This seems clearly intended to pave the way to prompt intervention as a matter forced by conditions upon a patient and unwilling Administration. The language is probably that of Senator Stone, of Missouri, who was chairman of the platform committee. In the Republican convention at Chicago, Senator Fall, of New Mexico, who is the foremost advocate in Congress of Mexican intervention, made the speech presenting Colonel Roosevelt as a Presidential candidate. All the platforms, therefore, mean intervention if they mean anything; and the President is justified in expecting strong support from all parties and elements in Congress for any vigorous measures he may choose to employ. The country does not wish war, but realizes that we are justified in trying to protect our border and to aid in pacifying northern Mexico.

*Our
Note of
Justification*

The Washington administration made public on June 20 an exceedingly elaborate statement to justify its position, in the form of a note to General Carranza, signed by our Secretary of State, Mr. Lansing. This note was, of course, intended quite as much for consumption in the United States as for what it purports to be, namely, an answer to the extensive Carranza note of May 22. The Mexican note had followed several weeks of diplomatic and military discussion in the endeavor, on Mexico's part, to persuade us to abandon offensive forms of invasion, and substitute for them a plan of coöperation for the actual patrol of the border while the Mexican Government was endeavoring to bring about the pacification of the entire country after its long years of civil war. It is hard to see how any impartial person can read the statements of the two governments and make note of the facts, considered as historical details, without finding the Mexican arguments on their face as convincing as our own. Our note of the 20th lectures, admonishes, and threatens. It seemingly evades the distinction that Carranza had urged between the pursuit of bandits and protection of the border, on the one hand, and the maintenance in Mexico of encamped and entrenched bodies of United States troops on the other hand. Mexico is crushed, and we arraign her.

*Actions
Versus
Professions*

The trouble with our position is that while we are saying one thing we are all the time doing another thing. Our actions seem to bear no relation at all to our professions and statements. Any plausible reason for the Pershing expedition had ceased at the time when Generals Scott and Funston conferred with General Obregon, about the 1st of May. We should then have had the frankness to bring our men back to our own side of the line. This, indeed, was the position that Scott and Funston themselves agreed upon with Obregon as correct. The Lansing note of June 20 devotes much space to a recital of depredations and atrocities. It lays foundations for justifying either one of two perfectly plain courses. One course would be to protect our border more efficiently than this Administration has been able to do, and to help General Carranza restore order. The other course would be to call a spade a spade; to say that the Pershing invasion was an invasion; to admit its relation to the temporary seizure and administration of northern Mexico; to declare our intention of re-

July—2



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BRIG.-GEN. JOHN J. PERSHING, COMMANDING THE AMERICAN TROOPS IN MEXICO

(Though many criticized a policy which had kept 15,000 American soldiers on foreign soil, inactive for more than two months, there has been unbounded praise for the energy, dash, and all-around efficiency of the members of our Army, from the highest to the lowest)

storing civil order and protecting all legitimate interests. But Mr. Lansing's note does not appear to explain or justify the particular thing that Carranza was protesting against. Our halted expedition had contributed neither to the safety of the border nor to the restoration of order and peace in Mexico. It had, on the contrary, increased the danger of border raids and interfered with the settling-down of Chihuahua and neighboring states.



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GEN. JACINTO B. TREVINO, COMMANDER OF THE CARRANZA FORCES IN NORTHERN MEXICO

(Acting upon instructions from Carranza, General Trevino informed General Pershing, on June 16, that any further extension of the American lines in Mexico would be considered a hostile act. General Pershing replied that he takes his orders from Washington)

*Our Challenge,
and Likely
Consequences*

Having pursued the methods that would make any country frantic, and that are in every essential phase acts of war on our own part, we issue a challenge to Carranza to attack us, and inform him that if there is any war it will be of his own choosing and making. This is somewhat like the position that the Austrians took towards Serbia when they issued an ultimatum and proceeded to invade the country. At least the Austrians were blunt enough to call the invasion war, and they avoided a pretense of surprise and of injured innocence when the Serbians undertook to repel invasion. The Mexicans could not possess national pride if they did not resent the treatment that they have received. There is a clear argument for the honest interventionist. There is an equally clear argument for those who believe in keeping on our own side of the line, using better diligence than we have shown hitherto in protecting our people against what, at worst, has been a slight danger of depredation upon the northern side of the international boundary. But no clear argument can be framed for the course that has actually been pursued. We were in a false

position, and should have done either the one thing or the other months ago. It seemed too late, however, last month to do anything except muddle our way through an intervention that had not been duly considered or wisely planned.

*How History
Repeats
Itself*

The well-prepared lawyer's brief in presentation of our case against Mexico, that this Wilson-Lansing document of June 20 was, recalled to mind the official arguments and statements of 1898 regarding Cuba, that immediately preceded our intervention and our brief war with Spain. Certain parallels might tempt one to a further recital; but our older readers will recall for themselves the pressure of public opinion here, and the justification afforded by intolerable conditions in Cuba, after three years of unavailing internal strife. In some respects, this Lansing document that seems to presage an almost immediate war as a consequence of our military occupation of parts of Mexico, reminds one even more strikingly of the state papers of that great Democratic leader, President James K. Polk, as he was about to set forth upon the adventure which was so eagerly desired by Texas and the great Southwest in 1845 and 1846.

It is to be regretted that serious causes of misunderstanding between the two countries continue



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THE FAMOUS SIXTY-NINTH REGIMENT, NEW YORK NATIONAL GUARD, ASSEMBLING AT THE ARMORY ON LEXINGTON AVENUE, JUNE 19

(This regiment was the first in the State to answer the President's call for service on the Mexican border. The picture is typical of country-wide scenes)

to exist, growing out of unredressed injuries inflicted by the Mexican authorities and people on the persons and property of citizens of the United States through a long series of years. Mexico has admitted these injuries, but has neglected and refused to repair them. Such was the character of the wrongs and such the insults repeatedly offered to American citizens and the American flag by Mexico . . . that they have repeatedly been brought to the notice of Congress. . . . We have borne the repeated wrongs Mexico has committed with great patience in the hope . . . that we might if possible honorably avoid any hostile collision with her. . . .

The movement of the [American] troops was made by the commanding general under positive instructions to abstain from all aggressive acts toward Mexico or Mexican citizens, and to regard the relations between that republic and the United States as peaceful unless she should declare war or commit acts of hostility indicative of a state of war. . . .

The Mexican forces assumed a belligerent attitude, and General A——, then in command, notified General T—— to break up his camp within twenty-four hours and to retire beyond the ——— River. . . .

The grievous wrongs perpetrated by Mexico upon our citizens throughout a long period of years remain unredressed. . . . A government, either unable or unwilling to enforce the execution of such treaties, fails to perform one of its plainest duties. . . . But now, after reiterated menaces, Mexico has passed the boundary of the United States, has invaded our territory, and shed American blood upon the American soil. . . . As war exists, and, notwithstanding all our efforts to avoid it, exists by the acts of Mexico herself, we are called upon by every consideration of duty and patriotism to vindicate with decision the honor, the rights, and the interests of our country.

All these foregoing quotations in small print are not from the current utterances of President Woodrow Wilson or his Secretary of State, but from the messages of his predecessor, President James K. Polk, seventy years ago. History does not repeat itself precisely in matters of detail, but at least the tendency toward repetition is in some cases remarkable.

State Troops Under Arms

These pages were written on a day in June when New York regiments were marching up the Avenue on their way to the State camp. Like things were going on in Pennsylvania and other Eastern States; in Ohio, Illinois, Wisconsin, and the Mississippi Valley at large; and indeed throughout the country. These men are not fitted for midsummer climatic conditions on the Rio Grande. If war should come it would be necessary to recruit many volunteer regiments from Texas and the other border States, where the men are acclimated and thoroughly familiar with Mexican conditions.



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U. S. SENATOR HENRY C. LODGE, OF MASSACHUSETTS
(Who was Chairman of the Republican Platform Committee at Chicago)

The Party Platforms

With real things going on in the world, it would not seem worth while to give much thought or space to the empty utterances known as political platforms. Those adopted at Chicago and St. Louis were for campaign purposes only. In most expressions, they were enough alike to be regarded as made up on the plan of interchangeable parts. The Progressive platform is briefer and better phrased than the other two. The Republican platform is not sincere in its unqualified attacks upon the Democratic party, and it goes beyond reason in its promises to maintain the full rights of every American, on land or on sea, in this time of world war. Colonel Roosevelt had so strongly put the issues of "Americanism" and united devotion to the aims and principles of our country, that each party endeavored to outdo the others in asserting a position so obviously sound that nobody could possibly say anything on the other side. The Democrats at



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Roosevelt had blazed the trail
From the *Mail* (New York).

St. Louis were much more exuberant and rhetorical than their opponents at Chicago; so that they far outdid the others in the fulminating phrases of patriotism. The American Eagle was never made to scream more loudly or more harmlessly. It is not those who talk most about the flag and Americanism who are most devoted to the honor of their country or the furthering of its best ideals.

Various "Planks"
The Democrats extol and praise the Underwood tariff, and demand a tariff commission. The Republicans spurn the Underwood tariff, and also demand a tariff commission. The Progressives, in a better-phrased plank, uphold protection, and they too demand a tariff commission. The Democrats who, with the President's urgent aid, were trying to scuttle forthwith out of the Philippines only a few weeks ago, now prate mildly in their platform of "ultimate independence." The Republicans denounce the frustrated attempt to scuttle, claim the frustration as their own deed of merit, and declare that "to leave with our task half done would break our pledges, injure our prestige among nations, and imperil what has already been accomplished." The Progressives are very specific on the subject of naval and military preparation, and take strong ground. The Republican platform says that national de-

fense must be "not only adequate but thorough and complete." It carefully avoids taking any position at all on these important subjects. The Democrats also favor an army "fully adequate." Their idea of a citizens' reserve is also that it should be "adequate." As for a navy, they wish to have it "fully equal" to the "tasks which the United States hopes and expects to take part in performing." "Adequate" is the favorite word of the Republican and Democratic platform writers. Both platforms afford full shelter for every extreme of opinion upon the subject of armies and navies. The Democrats demand a merchant marine and favor the pending Government Shipping bill. The Republicans demand a merchant marine, and favor subsidies to private owners, denouncing the Shipping bill. Republicans and Democrats alike say they favor the extension of suffrage to women, provided it is done by the action of the States. That, however, is a matter for the individual State platforms, and these planks are, in point of fact, against the demand of the suffragists, who asked for an endorsement of their plan of an amendment to the Constitution of the United States. The Progressives, on the other hand, favor suffrage by both Federal and State action. In a few compact phrases the Progressive platform deals intelligently with business problems, including a demand for a national



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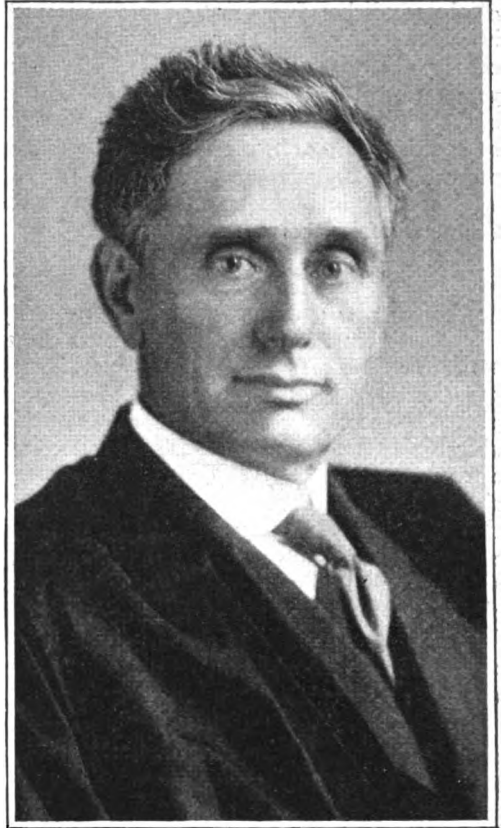
"I WONDER IF MY PETTICOAT SHOWS?"

From the *Mail* (New York).

budget system. The Republicans and Democrats also favor fiscal reform in the direction of scientific budget-making at Washington. To sum it all up, there is nothing in this year's platforms to show any very serious differences upon matters of principle or policy. The Democrats simply uphold their own performances, and the Republicans declare that it is they, rather than the Democrats, who are fit to be trusted with power. It will be found next November that the election is turning upon the question whether the country believes that Hughes or Wilson would make the better President.

Hughes, Brandeis and the Court
Justice Hughes' resignation on June 10 was immediately accepted by President Wilson.

After a number of months of investigation and delay, the Senate had, late in May, confirmed the appointment of Mr. Louis D. Brandeis of Boston, to fill the place on the bench made vacant by the death of Justice Lamar of Georgia. The Senate Judiciary Committee finally reported in favor of Mr. Brandeis by a strict party vote. To what extent personal or political considerations had entered into the appointment, and in how far politics had finally brought about the confirmation, are matters not now worth discussing. Mr. Brandeis is on the bench, admittedly a man of ability and lofty aims. It is gratifying to know that many well-informed lawyers believe that Mr. Brandeis will in due time be regarded as one of the great figures of the Supreme Court. Mr. Hughes was so highly valued as a member of the bench that it will not be easy to find a man of equal talents, industry, and judicial poise to fill the new vacancy. There was some feeling expressed that Mr. Hughes, having accepted this life appointment, ought not to have "dragged the bench down into politics." But his recent judicial colleagues would all, doubtless, be glad to say that Mr. Hughes did nothing of that kind. The real objection to him as a candidate was not that as a judge he was entering party politics, but rather that his maintenance of judicial dignity was so strict that his political views could not be ascertained. Those who have not liked the precedent of taking a candidate from the Supreme bench should consider that the rare exception gives emphasis to the rule. Mr. Hughes was destined to be a Presidential candidate, and even the bench could not protect him from that fate. Probably Mr. Brandeis will be



© Harris & Ewing, Washington, D. C.
ASSOCIATE JUSTICE LOUIS D. BRANDEIS, OF THE
UNITED STATES SUPREME COURT
(Mr. Brandeis took his seat on the bench June 5, having been confirmed by the Senate four days earlier)

somewhat talked of as a Democratic candidate four years or eight years hence; but otherwise there is not much prospect of a change in the general practise of regarding federal judges as peculiarly set apart and not to be brought into party contests at the polls.

*Poor Crops
for 1916*

The Department of Agriculture's report issued June 8 indicated for 1916 a serious falling off from the splendid crops of wheat and oats of the past two years. Owing to a large abandonment of winter wheat acreage, smaller spring wheat planting and much poorer average condition of the plant for both crops, the wheat production of the present year promised only 715 million bushels—the smallest yield since 1911 and nearly 300 million bushels less than the harvest of 1915. The month of May was a hard one on the plant in the areas of greatest production, the drought being broken too late to repair the damage done by earlier lack of moisture. The crop of oats is also more than five points

off in condition from last year and is well below the ten years' average, the total indicated yield being 1255 million bushels. Last year's record harvest totalled 1540 million bushels. This disappointing showing would have a depressing effect on the exchanges and on trade in an average year. The present wild activity in business and industry causes the news to be passed almost unnoticed.

Business at High Tide
The Federal Reserve Board in its June report finds prosperity in America at its climax. Facto-

ries have orders to keep them working at capacity throughout the year. Money is plenty and cheap; wages in general are probably higher than ever before, and collections are unusually good. Railroad earnings are showing a remarkable recovery. In spite of the record wages being paid, there is much unrest among employees. Another unfavorable factor is the congestion of freight, especially ocean freight. Every shipyard in the United States is working to capacity, with an aggregate of more than 1,000,000 tons of shipping on the stocks.

Uncle Sam's Rising Income
In consequence of the activity of business and trade the Government's receipts from internal revenue collections are breaking all records and will far transcend the advance estimates. For the first ten months of the year, according to a statement issued by Secretary McAdoo, the "ordinary" sources of the Government's income increased \$13,600,000 over 1915 in addition to an expansion of \$26,000,000 in the income tax collections. An interesting part of this report from the Secretary of the Treasury is that relating to the collections on distilled spirits, which for the ten months increased no less than \$10,000,000 over the corresponding period of 1915 in spite of the fact that several States had just been added to the "dry" column. Secretary McAdoo estimates the total receipts for the fiscal year at close to \$500,000,000.

Exports Show New Records
Our foreign trade, too, seems to have reached a climax. Under the impulse of war demands, exports from the port of New York reached their highest record in the second week of June with a total value of \$92,000,000. In the corresponding week of 1915 the value was only \$15,000,000. Three-quarters of this huge outgoing volume went to Great Britain, France, Russia, and Italy—some

\$72,000,000, where, a year before, only \$5,000,000 went to those countries. No less than \$25,000,000 was classified as explosives. Automobiles amounted to \$3,000,000, as against only \$150,000 in 1915. The other important items were manufactures of iron and steel, of brass and copper; oils, sugar, cotton, and leather. That the discussion of capturing the South American trade is not without practical results is shown by the increase of 50 per cent. over the corresponding week before the war.

Russia's Market for America's Goods
Russia as well as South America is engaging the attention of our exporters. There is a general feeling that the vast country and its great population are ready for a forward step in commercial development that will make it a foreign market second to none in importance to American manufacturers. Before the war the Germans had come almost to monopolize the Russian market, sending annually no less than \$332,000,000 worth of goods across the border—more than 50 per cent. of the total imports. They had beaten the British in the race, being more intelligent and painstaking in the matter of prices, credits, and variety of offerings. This German trade with Russia being now absolutely cut off except for a few subterranean arrangements, America's chance is at hand. It is this situation which lent especial importance to the Russian loan of \$50,000,000 arranged with New York bankers in June. The borrower had to pay a high price for this credit, the



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"LET WELL ENOUGH ALONE"
From the *World* (New York).



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PRESIDENT WOODROW WILSON AND HIS CABINET AS NOW CONSTITUTED

(From left to right, are: The President; William G. McAdoo, Secretary of the Treasury; Thomas W. Gregory, Attorney-General; Josephus Daniels, Secretary of the Navy; David F. Houston, Secretary of Agriculture; Robert Lansing, Secretary of State [in the light suit]; William B. Wilson, Secretary of Labor; Newton D. Baker, Secretary of War; Albert S. Burleson, Postmaster-General; Franklin K. Lane, Secretary of the Interior, and William C. Redfield, Secretary of Commerce).

loan carrying $6\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. directly, with a further considerable chance for profit in the probable fluctuations in the exchange rate for rubles which are now selling for 31 cents as against a normal rate of 51.2.

Railroad Workers Voting as to a Strike

On June 16 the conference of railway managers with the representatives of the unions in New York City came to an end in a total failure to agree. The union heads at once prepared to submit to a vote of the workers a proposition to strike on all trains except those carrying mail and milk. This involves the sending out of 500,000 ballots and the voting will not be completed for about five weeks. Then, in August, the conference will be resumed, with the brotherhood chieftains wielding the power of a strike threat or confessedly unable to employ that last weapon. The representatives of the employees refused in the June conference to abate in the least their demands for ten-hour pay for an eight-hour day of 100 miles run—except for passenger trains—and time and a half pay for overtime. The railway managers offered to submit the question to arbitration, either by the Interstate Commerce Commission, or under the procedure

prescribed by the Newlands Act—proposals that were quickly rejected by the union men.

Revolution in Santo Domingo

In this REVIEW for September of last year there was printed a summary of recent Haitian history, then timely because of revolution and assassination. Just now it is the other half of the same West Indian island which is misbehaving in the customary manner. Haiti had installed—as we then pointed out—its eighth President within four years. Santo Domingo last month was in arms over the choice of its seventh President within five years. Not one of the thirteen executives who passed on had served out the term for which he was elected. In fortunate contrast with Haitian insurrections, those in Santo Domingo still remain comparatively bloodless. Presidents Victoria, Nouel, Bordas, and now Jimenez, all resigned before the revolutionists came too close. President Jimenez achieved the distinction of serving eighteen months, longer than any of his immediate predecessors; but for some time there had been murmurings of discontent. Once again money has been the root of evil, and allegations were freely made that President Jimenez and numerous relatives in official

positions were looting the public treasury. Since 1907 the administration of customs in Santo Domingo has been under American direction, to guarantee the payment of interest on the bonded indebtedness; but the surplus passes into the local treasury in sufficient amount to breed discontent.

*President
Jimenez
Resigns*

Early in May impeachment motions were carried in both branches of the Dominican legislature, but that movement was blocked when President Jimenez declared the capital in a state of rebellion. Then the opposition took up arms, under the leadership of General Arias, Secretary of War, and President Jimenez resigned his office on May 7. American diplomatic and naval authorities have dominated the situation since that time, refusing to approve the selection of Arias as President and desiring the restoration of Jimenez. At present the issue is the extent to which American interference shall be tolerated; and the presence of several thousand of our marines under Admiral Caperton, "the policeman of the Caribbean," renders that issue chiefly academic. Unfortunately, however, there have already been skirmishes between the revolutionists and our marines, with the constant danger of further conflicts. No one questions the beneficial effects of our administration of the Dominican customs. But there is always decided objection, upon the part of the "outs," to the efforts of American diplomatic representatives and naval authorities to support and strengthen those in power; and most Dominicans now seem to be out of sympathy with President Jimenez.

*Porto Rico
and Cuba in
Contrast*

The islands to the east and west—Porto Rico and Cuba—continue to be prosperous and contented. The Porto Ricans, through legislation at Washington, are about to receive American citizenship, together with a revised form of government. In Cuba the quadrennial Presidential campaign is proceeding with less friction, probably, than any other in the republic's brief history. President Menocal has been renominated by the Conservatives with a plea for four more years of stable and responsible government. But the country is naturally Liberal; and if the several factions of that party were to adjust their long-standing differences and agree upon a single candidate, President Menocal's reelection would not be so certain. Such an outcome, however, seems as remote as

ever. Gen. Alfredo Zayas, an eminent lawyer and former Vice-President, is again the candidate of the largest group of Liberals. The island's sugar crop will this year be considerably smaller than the average, due to prolonged drought; but as the price of sugar in the States continues to advance the net return to the Cuban planter may exceed normal.

*A Coalition
Ministry
in Italy*

The Austrian offensive against the Italian invaders' positions—began in the middle of May, just a year after Italy entered the war—was as successful from the political standpoint as from the military. It forced the resignation of the cabinet headed by Premier Antonio Salandra. The Opposition, under the leadership of ex-Premier Giolitti, had for some time been demanding representation in the ministry; but so long as the fortunes of war favored Italian arms a political crisis was averted. With Austrian successes in the Trentino, and a threatened invasion of northern Italy, the Salandra ministry came to an end. On June 10 the Chamber of Deputies rejected a vote of confidence. King Victor Emmanuel consulted the leaders of all parties, and offered the Premiership to Paolo Boselli, dean of the Parliament, who is in his eightieth year. Baron Sonnino will continue as Minister of Foreign Affairs, and General Morrone and Admiral Corsi remain at the head of the War and Navy departments. All parties are represented in the new ministry. Meanwhile the great Russian offensive in Galicia and Bukowina has apparently caused the Austrians to abandon their drive toward Italy.

*Rumania
and Greece*

Should the Russian armies continue successful along the Rumanian border, arguments favoring that country's entrance into the war would once more be revived. During recent months Teutonic propagandists in Rumania had been most successful, culminating in the purchase by Germany and Austria of more than half of the vast Rumanian grain crop. The chief local result has been an alarming rise in the price not only of foodstuffs, but of everything else. The Rumanian people are thus faring badly, for the compensating profits are passing into the pockets of a small group of capitalists. In the other neutral Balkan country, Greece, the past month has seen decided changes—which, however, have not bettered an unfortunate situation. Bulgarian armies have moved



THE BULGARIANS AND GERMANS TRESPASSING ON GREEK SOIL

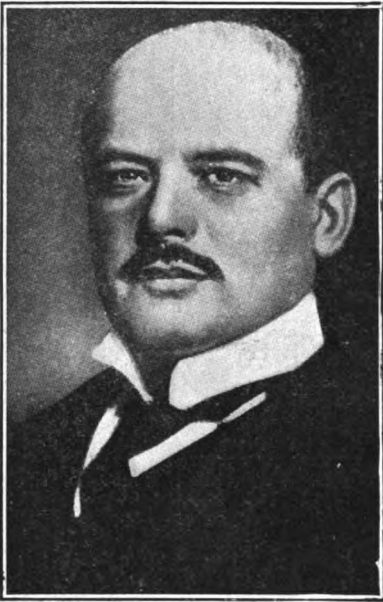
KING CONSTANTINE, AS INNKEEPER (Despairingly, to the French, English, and Serbian Allies): "What can I do with more strangers in my house? There is much trouble and little profit from those already here."

From *De Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam).

southward across the border, and occupied several Greek forts. With the Allies occupying the port and harbor of Salonica, and Bulgarians entrenched a few miles northward, Greece may well expect soon to feel all the ravages of war. That the Allies have abandoned hope of active assistance from Greece, and have even feared that King Constantine might join with their enemies, is indicated by the partial demobilization of the Greek army on June 8—brought about by a threatened commercial blockade by the British and French. King Constantine—who is a brother-in-law of the German Emperor—has been reminded that Greece became an independent kingdom (1832) under the protection of Great Britain, France, and Russia, and that Constantine's father, then a Danish prince, was placed on the Greek throne (1863) by those same powers. The inference is plainly that the future of the Greek kingdom, from the viewpoint of the Allies, is not bound up with the continuance of the present dynasty.

A Bright Outlook for China
The sudden death of Yuan Shih-kai last month seems destined, curiously enough, to have a beneficial effect upon the course of Chinese affairs—for the present at least. For fifteen or twenty years he had been called China's

one strong man; but his vigorous and autocratic ways at times carried him into positions from which graceful withdrawal was difficult. Once he was banished from the capital in disgrace, only to be recalled three years afterwards to put down civil strife which finally culminated in the abdication of the Regent and the formation of the Chinese Republic, in 1912, with Yuan himself as President. His recent attempt to restore a monarchical form of government, and appoint himself Emperor, was ill-advised. He soon found that the demand for a republic had not abated. The southern provinces broke out in revolt, and even after Yuan had abandoned the scheme they seceded from the Peking government and declared themselves an independent republic. Upon the death of Yuan Shih-kai and the succession of Vice-President Li Yuan-hung, these revolting provinces asserted their loyalty to the new government. Li Yuan-hung, incidentally, had been their choice for president of the southern republic. The reader's attention is directed to the article on page 53, analyzing the present situation in China and describing the new President. The author is Mr. Hollington K. Tong, an able Chinese editor who has been visiting this country and who wrote the article on the eve of his departure for his native land.



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ADOLPH VON BATOCKI

(To whom has been assigned the task of finding and properly appropriating food supplies for seventy million Germans)

The German Food Problem

During the first months of the war it was confidently asserted by Dr. Dernburg, in the pages of this magazine, that Germany would be able to feed herself for two years even though completely shut off from outside markets. That this prediction will become a fact there is now no doubt. There have been unceasing rumors of an ever-impending food crisis, and there have been murmurings of dissatisfaction with many of the Government's restrictive measures. There is admittedly a scarcity of many articles of food—just now it is potatoes, meat, butter, and sugar—and much depends upon the coming harvest. It is no longer denied that the crops of 1914 and 1915 were poor. The Government has now placed the entire problem of the supply and distribution of food in the hands of a Food Regulating Board, at the head of which is Adolph von Batocki, who won renown by his rehabilitation of East Prussia after the brief but disastrous Russian invasion of 1914. The energy and optimism with which the new "Food Dictator" has taken up his difficult and thankless task have strengthened the belief that no mistake was made in his selection.

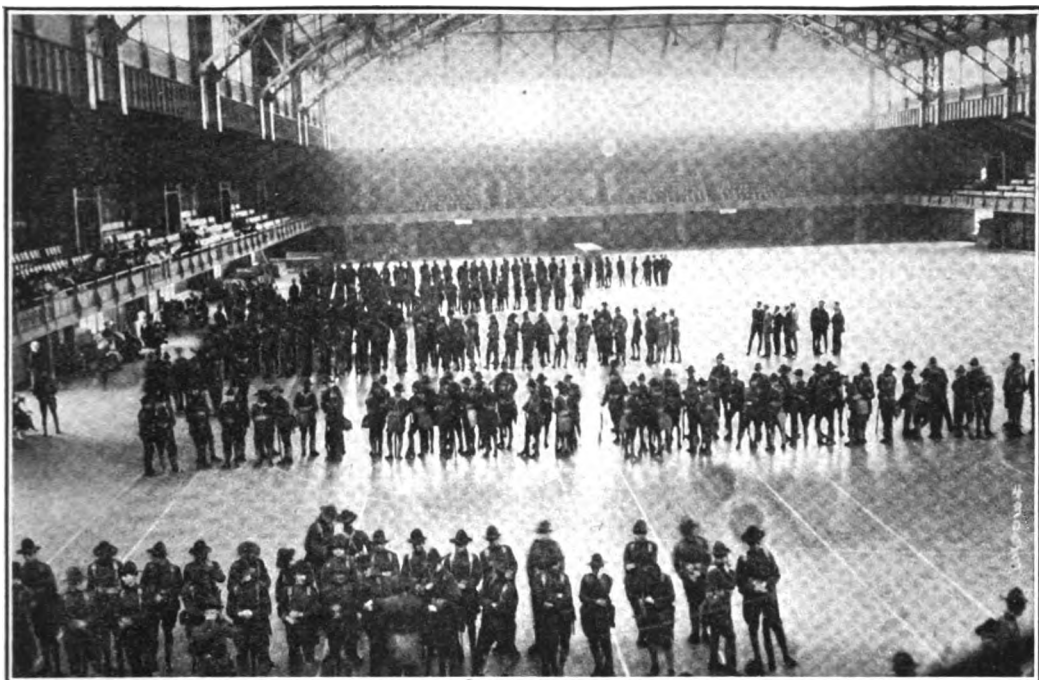
The Naval Fight in the North Sea

In this REVIEW for last month, Mr. James B. Macdonald analyzed the naval probabilities in the North and Baltic seas and predicted that the coming summer would bring a naval engagement on a vast scale. Even before the magazine had reached its readers, the main British and German fleets met in what was probably the greatest sea fight in history. Moving northward along the Danish coast, on the afternoon of May 31, the German fleet came in contact with advance elements of the British. An engagement began which lasted until long after darkness had set in. At first the advantage in strength was with the Germans. Then the British battle-cruiser squadron arrived, and the fight was more nearly equal. Finally, the famous British battleship fleet reached the scene, darkness came, and the German fleet withdrew. Both sides claimed a victory, and Kaiser and King alike congratulated their men. The British were probably more frank in stating their losses, and for some days it seemed that they had suffered much and achieved little. Later the Germans admitted losses that they had previously denied. Six powerful British cruisers were sunk and also eight British destroyers. The Germans lost a battleship, one large and four small cruisers, and five destroyers. As no attempt could be made to save lives, nearly 10,000 sailors went down with their ships. The battle will have no effect on the outcome of the war. Great as were the losses, they will hardly be felt by either side. Britannia still rules the waves, and the German fleet remains a vital factor. But the North Sea fight has afforded one of the most thrilling episodes of the great European conflict.

When Will Peace Come?

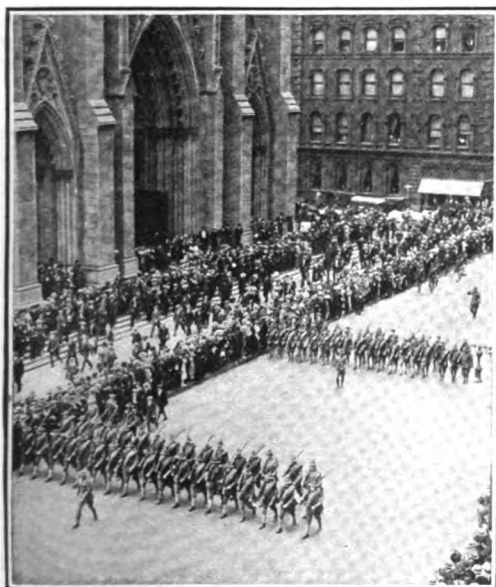
There are no definite prospects of the war's early ending. The longing for peace and the talk of peace are, indeed, more in evidence from month to month. Both sides are preparing to fight through another year, yet both are hoping to leave the trenches before next Christmas. The idea that President Wilson may mediate is less repugnant to the belligerents than it was declared to be only a few months ago. Mr. Wilson has spoken well of the plan for a league to enforce peace in the future. Some of our German readers do not like Mr. Simonds' predictions. But he has earned the right to express his honest views, and most of our readers are glad to read what he has to say, whether his views accord with their hopes or not.

THE MOBILIZATION OF THE NATIONAL GUARD

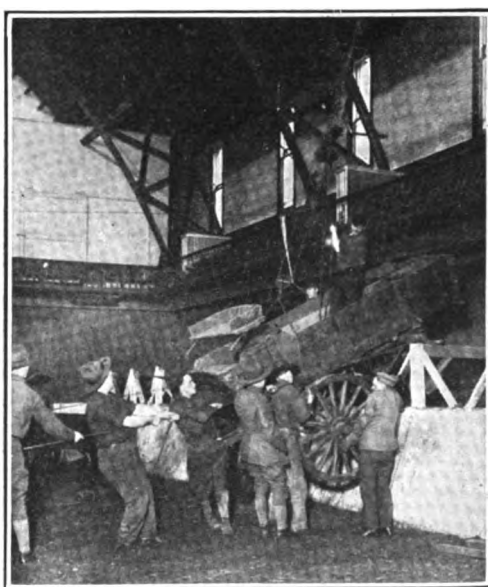


① International Film Service

THE TWENTY-SECOND REGIMENT, N. Y. ENGINEERS, GATHERING IN THEIR ARMORY—A SCENE DUPLICATED IN THE NATIONAL GUARD ARMORIES OF MANY STATES LAST MONTH



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York
THE SIXTY-NINTH (N. Y.) ON FIFTH AVENUE



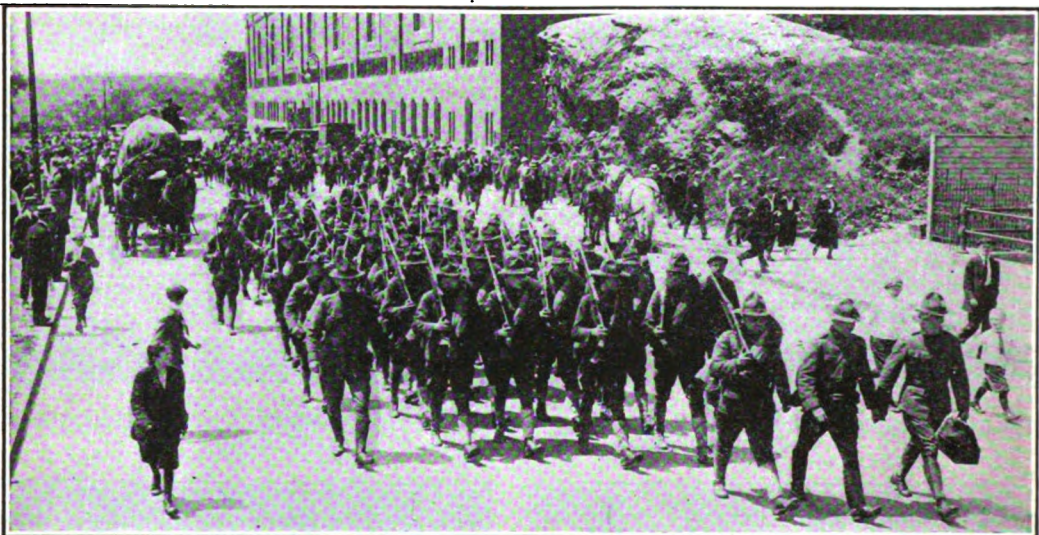
① by the American Press Association, New York
GETTING OUT THE REGIMENTAL WAGONS



① Underwood & Underwood, New York
A BUSY SCENE OUTSIDE AN ARMORY



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York
ENTRAINING FOR THE STATE CAMP



① Underwood & Underwood, New York
A NEW YORK REGIMENT MARCHING FROM THE ARMORY TO THE RAILROAD STATION



① Underwood & Underwood, New York
TROOPS LEAVING THE TRAIN NEAR THE STATE
MOBILIZATION CAMP



① Underwood & Underwood, New York
UNLOADING BAKE-OVEN EQUIPMENT AT CAMP
WHITMAN, BECKMAN, N. Y.

RECORD OF EVENTS IN THE WAR

(From May 20 to June 20, 1916)

The Last Part of May

May 20.—The British army operating against the Turks in the Tigris Valley is joined by a force of Russian cavalry "after a bold and adventurous ride"; the main Russian armies advancing toward Bagdad from the Caucasus and from Persia are still widely separated from each other and from the British.

May 21.—The third month of the battle of Verdun opens, with the Germans renewing their assaults at Dead Man's Hill and Hill 304; the French recover by assault the Haudromont quarries, lost on April 16.

May 22.—The French at Verdun, by a vigorous assault, recapture part of Fort Douaumont, lost three months earlier.

A German attack at Vimy Ridge, between Loos and Arras, carries a mile of British trenches to a depth of more than 100 yards.

The Italian General Staff estimates that 600,000 Austrians are engaged in an attempt to break through the Italian lines in the Trentino.

May 23.—A War Food Department is created in Germany, to deal with all matters relating to the supply and distribution of food; Adolph von Batocki, who had charge of the rehabilitation of East Prussia after the Russian invasion of 1914, is appointed to the office.

The Italian War Office admits the continued withdrawal of troops before the Austrian offensive in the Sugana and upper Astigo Valleys.

The British House of Commons votes a war credit of \$1,500,000,000, covering expenses to the first week in August; the total authorization to date is \$11,910,000,000.

In the western Sudan, near El Fasher, British forces defeat native followers of the Sultan of Dafur.

May 24.—The United States protests to Great Britain and France against arbitrary and improper interference with mails on the high seas, which has resulted disastrously to citizens of the United States; such methods, it is declared, can no longer be tolerated.

The Germans at Verdun, after hand-to-hand fighting, occupy the village of Cumières and recapture Fort Douaumont.

May 25.—King George signs the British compulsory military service Bill, applicable to all able-bodied men between the ages of 18 and 41; he refers to the fact that 5,041,000 men have voluntarily enlisted since the war began.

May 26.—Bulgarian troops enter Greece for the first time, and occupy several Greek forts north of Demi Hissar.

The Rockefeller Foundation of New York appropriates \$1,000,000 for the relief of war sufferers in Poland, Serbia, Montenegro, and Albania.

May 27.—General Joseph S. Gallieni, recently French Minister of War and known as the "savior of Paris," dies of illness.

May 28.—The Serbian army, rested and newly clad, is reported to have arrived at Salonica after spending the winter on the Greek island of Corfu.

May 29.—It is officially stated at London that in forty-four air attacks upon England since the beginning of the war, 409 persons have been killed and 1005 injured; in three attacks by German warships, 141 persons were killed and 611 injured.

May 30.—It is stated at Ottawa that the Canadian losses in the war have totaled 5242 dead and 14,768 wounded.

The Austrian War Office claims that since their offensive began, two weeks ago, they have captured 30,388 Italian officers and men.

May 31.—British and German fleets meet off the coast of Jutland (Denmark), near the Skagerrak, in what is probably the greatest naval engagement in history; the advantage in strength lies first with the Germans and afterward with the British, causing the Germans to withdraw; the British admit the loss of six large cruisers and eight destroyers, the Germans a battleship, a battle cruiser, four light cruisers, and five destroyers; 9500 lives are lost.

The Germans at Verdun attack the French line west of the Meuse, by artillery fire and infantry assaults, with violence said to equal any previous effort.

The Russian armies in Turkey meet with their first reverse, and are compelled to evacuate Mamakhatun, Armenia.

The First Week of June

June 1.—The Germans carry by storm Caillette Wood, in the Verdun district, between Vaux and Douaumont.

June 2.—The German attack on Verdun centers near Fort Vaux, the French declaring that the fighting attains unprecedented violence.

Southeast of Ypres the Germans capture a position held by Canadians and take 350 prisoners, including a general.

June 4.—Russian armies under General Brusilov begin an offensive movement against the Austro-Hungarian lines in Volhynia, Galicia, and Bukowina, on a front of 250 miles extending from the Pripet River to the Rumanian frontier.

Italian resistance to the Austrians stiffens and the progress of the Austrians becomes less marked.

June 5.—The British cruiser *Hampshire* is sunk by a mine or torpedo west of the Orkney Islands; Earl Kitchener, Minister of War, and his staff (who were on their way to Russia), and all except twelve of the crew are lost.

June 6.—Fort Vaux, within five miles of Verdun, is completely occupied by the Germans, who attained a foothold on June 2; within a week the German line has been advanced one mile.

The Second Week of June

June 8.—An official Russian announcement states that more than 50,000 Austro-Hungarian and some German prisoners have been taken in four days; it is understood that the Russians have advanced more than twenty miles over a front of 100.

The Entente Powers adopt "precautionary" restrictive measures against Greece, creating a commercial blockade; the Greek cabinet decides upon partial demobilization.

The French Chamber passes a "daylight saving" bill, setting clocks forward one hour from June 14 to October 1.

June 9.—The Italian Admiralty announces that the transport *Principe Umberto* has been torpedoed and sunk in the lower Adriatic, with large loss of life.

June 10.—Russian successes against the Austro-Hungarian forces in Volhynia, Galicia, and Bukowina continue; 35,000 additional prisoners are declared to have been taken during the day, as well as the fortress of Dubno.

June 11.—The Italian cabinet headed by Premier Salandra resigns following the failure of a vote of confidence in the Chamber of Deputies; the ministerial crisis was brought about principally by the demand for a coalition ministry.

June 13.—Canadian troops recapture their old position southeast of Zillebeke, lost to the Germans on June 2.

June 14.—An Economic Conference of the Allies is opened at Paris, with ministers of commerce and finance in attendance.

The Third Week of June

June 16.—It is officially declared at Rome that the Austrian offensive has been almost entirely checked and that an Italian offensive has been successfully developed.

June 17.—The Russian army enters Czernowitz, capital of Bukowina, Austria, upon the withdrawal of the Austrians.

June 19.—A coalition ministry is constituted in Italy, with Paolo Boselli as Premier and Baron Sonnino as Minister of Foreign Affairs.

June 20.—The Russian drive against the Austrian lines continues successful; it is estimated at Petrograd that 170,000 prisoners have been taken, and it has become evident that the Russian aim is to capture armies, rather than to occupy territory.

The British Board of Trade issues a statement outlining the results of the economic conference at Paris, it being agreed that trade restrictions against Germany will continue after the war is ended.

RECORD OF OTHER EVENTS

(From May 20 to June 20, 1916)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

May 20.—The House passes the Administration's Shipping bill by a party vote; the conference report on the Army Reorganization bill is adopted by vote of 349 to 25.

May 23.—The House passes the Porto Rico bill, reconstructing the governmental system of the island and making male Porto Ricans citizens of the United States; a new Administration "preparedness" measure is introduced, providing for the creation of a National Council of Executive Information (consisting of six members of the Cabinet) and an advisory commission.

May 24.—The Senate Committee on Judiciary, by a party vote, favorably reports the nomination of Louis D. Brandeis for the Supreme Court after four months' consideration. . . . In the House, the Naval bill is reported from committee, carrying authorizations totaling \$241,450,000.

May 29.—The Senate, after three weeks of filibustering led by Mr. Kenyon (Rep., Ia.) and Mr. Husting (Dem., Wis.), passes the bill appropriating \$43,000,000 for river and harbor improvements.

May 30.—In the House, the Naval bill is amended, through the efforts of the Republican minority, by increasing the number of submarines authorized from twenty to fifty.

May 31.—In the House, the Naval bill is amended to increase the provision for aeronautics and to include the Senate's provision for a Government armor-plate plant.

June 1.—The Senate confirms the nomination of Louis D. Brandeis as an Associate Justice of the United States Supreme Court.

June 2.—The House adopts the Naval appropriation bill, carrying approximately \$270,000,000.

June 12.—The House begins consideration of the Fortifications bill, authorizing appropriations of \$34,397,000.

June 17.—The House passes the Pension appropriation bill (\$158,000,000) without amendment and without a dissenting vote.

AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

May 26.—Governor McCall signs the income-tax bill passed by the Massachusetts legislature.

May 27.—President Wilson, addressing the League to Enforce Peace, at Washington, declares his belief that the United States is willing to become a partner in any feasible association of nations formed to guarantee territorial integrity and political independence and to prevent hasty wars.

May 30.—Memorial Day addresses are delivered by President Wilson, at the Arlington National Cemetery, and by ex-President Roosevelt, at Kansas City; both speak on Americanism and preparedness.

June 3.—President Wilson signs the Army Reorganization bill.

June 5.—The voters of Iowa reject a woman-suffrage amendment by a small majority.

June 7.—Republicans and Progressives meet in national conventions at Chicago, with responsible elements in both parties seeking harmony in candidates and platforms.

June 9.—In the Republican National Convention the first ballot for the Presidential nomination gives Justice Charles E. Hughes 253 votes, John W. Weeks 105, Elihu Root 103, Albert B. Cummins 87, Theodore E. Burton 82, Charles W. Fairbanks 72, Theodore Roosevelt 67, and Lawrence Y. Sherman 63.

June 10.—Charles E. Hughes, Associate Justice of the United States Supreme Court, is nominated as the Republican candidate for President on the third ballot in the convention at Chicago, with Charles W. Fairbanks as Vice-Presidential nominee; Mr. Hughes resigns his judicial office and accepts the nomination; the Progressives, after a two-days' attempt to reach an agreement with the Republicans, nominate Theodore Roosevelt and John M. Parker of Louisiana.

June 14.—The Democratic National Convention meets at St. Louis, former-Governor Glynn of New York delivering the "keynote" speech as temporary chairman. . . . A "preparedness" and Flag Day parade in Washington is participated in by 60,000 men and women, including President Wilson, members of the Cabinet, the Supreme Court, and Congress.

June 15.—President Woodrow Wilson and Vice-President Thomas R. Marshall are renominated by acclamation in the Democratic convention.

June 16.—The Democratic convention at St. Louis comes to an end with the adoption of a platform and the election of Vance C. McCormick of Pennsylvania as national chairman to manage the Wilson campaign.

THE AMERICAN EXPEDITION IN MEXICO

May 22.—The Carranza government in Mexico presents a note to the United States reviewing recent relations, protesting against violations of the sovereignty of Mexico, urging a definite outline of policy, and formally inviting the withdrawal of American troops.

May 25.—Villa's chief bandit lieutenant, Candelaria Cervantes, is killed during an attack upon a small detachment of privates of the Seventeenth Infantry southeast of Cruces, Chihuahua.

June 15.—Mexican raiders, said to number 100, cross the border at San Ignacio, Texas, and attack American cavalry troops; three American soldiers and six Mexicans are killed.

June 16.—The commander of Carranza forces in Chihuahua, General Jacinto B. Trevino, informs General Pershing that any extension of the present American lines will be considered a hostile act. . . . At the American Army Headquarters in Texas, it is stated that thirty American soldiers have been killed and over 100 wounded since August 1, 1915.

June 18.—The President calls out the organized militia and National Guard of the various States, for the protection of the frontier against further Mexican aggression; before being sent to the border the troops will undergo special training in mobilization camps.

June 20.—The United States replies to the Mexican note of May 22, setting forth its position and refusing to withdraw American troops while anarchy in northern Mexico continues.



MRS. JOSIAH EVANS COWLES, OF LOS ANGELES
(Elected president of the General Federation of Women's Clubs, in their biennial convention held at New York City late in May)

FOREIGN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

May 29.—The province of Hu-nan, China, declares its independence of the Yuan Shih-kai government.

June 6.—Yuan Shih-kai, President of the Chinese Republic, dies at Peking after a brief illness; the Premier announces the succession of Vice-President Li Yuan Hung.

June 9.—Four of the revolting Chinese provinces rescind their declarations of independence and assert their loyalty to the new government.

June 12.—The Argentine electoral congress names Hipolito Irigoyen (Radical) President, the culmination of a bitter political fight.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

June 1.—American marines are landed at Monte Christi and Puerta Plata, Santo Domingo, to restore order pending the subsidence of the revolutionary outbreak and the election of a President; resistance is offered by the natives and a captain of United States Marines is killed.

June 8.—Word is received at Washington that Amoro Sato, educated at Depauw University, will succeed Viscount Chinda as Japanese Ambassador to the United States.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

May 20.—Two Curtiss war aeroplanes make the journey from Newport News, Va., to New York City, without stop; the estimated distance of 416 miles is covered by one machine in four hours.



THE LATE JAMES J. HILL AND HIS SON, LOUIS W. HILL

(Mr. James J. Hill, who died May 29 at his home in St. Paul, was the greatest of American railroad builders and administrators. He was the foremost surviving figure in the economic upbuilding of the Northwest. His son, Louis W. Hill, succeeds him as head of the Hill system of railroads. In a later number of the REVIEW will appear more extended mention of Mr. James J. Hill's career)

May 31.—Lieutenant Sir Ernest Shackleton arrives at Falkland Islands in a small open boat, after seventeen months spent in Antarctic exploration, during which his ship *Endurance* was lost; twenty-two of his men were left behind in the Antarctic.

June 1.—Representatives of railway operators and of engineers, firemen, conductors, and brakemen meet at New York City to discuss demands for an eight-hour day.

June 3.—Civilian parades in favor of preparedness are held in Chicago, St. Louis, Providence, New Orleans and other large cities.

June 5.—A tornado sweeps over Arkansas, Missouri, and Mississippi, destroying whole towns and causing the death of more than 100 persons.

June 13.—The election of Ernest Martin Hopkins as president of Dartmouth College is announced.

June 15.—The conference between railroad managers and representatives of the employees comes to an end without agreement; the labor leaders will seek the power to declare a strike and then meet the managers in another conference.

OBITUARY

May 23.—Gen. Murray Van Diver, prominent in Maryland Democratic politics and financial affairs. . . . Webster Wells, for many years professor of mathematics at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 65.

May 25.—George H. Lindsay, former member of Congress from New York, 80. . . . Leander Edmund Whipple, a widely known writer on metaphysical topics, 67.

May 26.—Timothy Dwight, formerly President of Yale University, 87.

May 27.—Gen. Joseph S. Gallieni, recently French Minister of War, 67. . . . Mme. Jane Dieulafoy, the French author and explorer.

May 29.—James J. Hill, the noted railroad man and "empire-builder" of the Northwest, 77. . . . Thomas Roberts Slicer, D. D., the distinguished New York Unitarian minister, 69.

May 30.—Col. John Singleton Mosby, the famous Confederate ranger, 82. . . . Rear-Adm. John F. Merry, U. S. N., retired, 76.

June 1.—Charles SooySmith, a distinguished New York civil engineer, 60.

June 2.—Harris Merton Lyon, magazine editor and writer of short stories, 32.

June 4.—Dr. Elizabeth Wiley Corbett, a pioneer in the "pure food" movement, 82.

June 6.—Yuan Shih-kai, President of the Chinese Republic, 57.

June 7.—Auguste Emile Faguet, the brilliant French writer and academician, 69.

June 9.—John R. McLean, publisher of the Washington *Post* and Cincinnati *Enquirer*, 67.

June 11.—Mrs. Glenn Ford McKinney (Jean Webster), the author, 39. . . . Dr. Frank D. Gray, a leading surgeon of New Jersey, 59.

June 12.—Acton Davies, the New York dramatic critic and author, 46.

June 13.—Prof. Silvanus Phillips Thompson, a noted English physicist, 65. . . . Jules Hedeman, one of the best known of French journalists, 45.

June 16.—Edwin C. Burleigh, United States Senator from Maine, 73. . . . Lt.-Col. Morton Fitz Smith, U. S. A., commandant of cadets at the United States Military Academy, 44.

June 18.—Gen. Count Helmuth von Moltke, recently Chief of the German General Staff, 68.

June 19.—Frank Vincent, author and tropical explorer, 68.

June 20.—George W. Olney, for many years editor of the "World Almanac," 81.

THE CARTOONISTS START THE CAMPAIGN



TWO SOULS WITH BUT A SINGLE THOUGHT
From the *Ledger* (Philadelphia)

FEW people would have predicted four years ago that the chief issue at the opening of the Presidential campaign of 1916 would be "Americanism." Our relations with the great war, however, seemed in recent months to have brought about a condition where unequivocal loyalty to the United States loomed large in political discussions.

July—3

Colonel Roosevelt, as the boldest and most virile champion of the doctrine, did much to rouse public opinion along this line. The national conventions took up the theme, and speeches and platforms echoed it. Parties and candidates vied with each other in putting themselves on record for "the Flag." "Hyphenism"—or the divided allegiance of



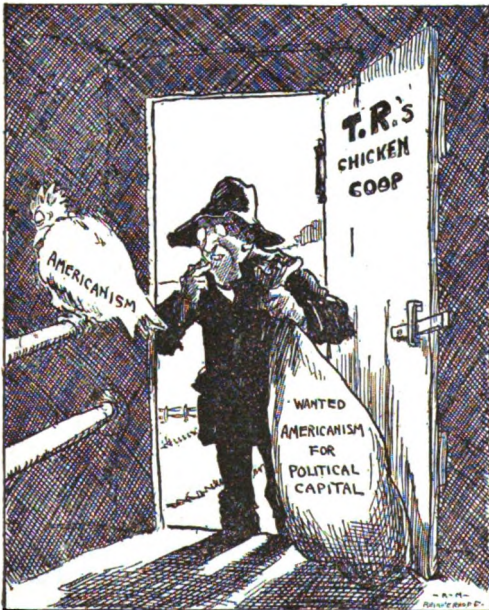
"IF THEY WILL ONLY STAY ON TILL NOVEMBER"
From the *Sun* (New York)

foreign-born citizens—was emphatically denounced. Although the campaign started strongly on this note, it is doubtful whether "Americanism" will long remain an issue, in view of the wave of patriotism sweeping over the country as a result of possible war with Mexico, and because of the clear and

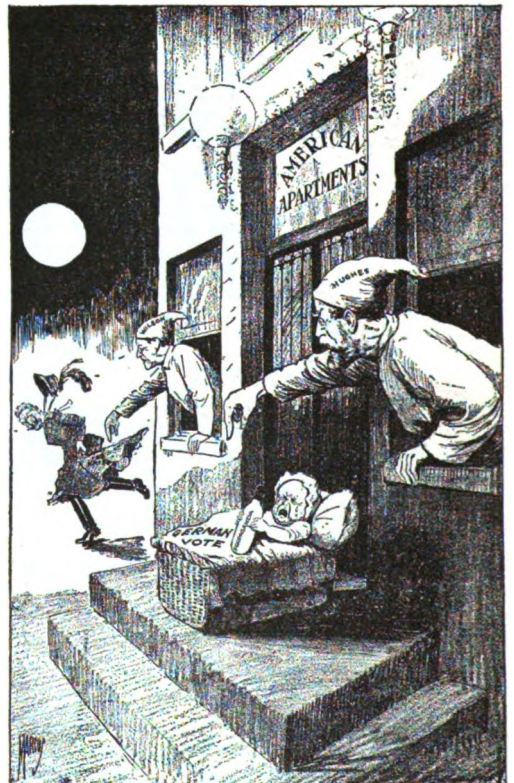


MR. HUGHES WILL STAND ON THE PLATFORM
From the *Star* (St. Louis)

unquestioned stand of both leading candidates on this subject.



© 1916, S. S. McClure
ROOSEVELT'S LAST CHICKEN
From the *Mail* (New York)



THE FOUNDLING
BOTH: "Take it away!"
From the *Times* (New York)

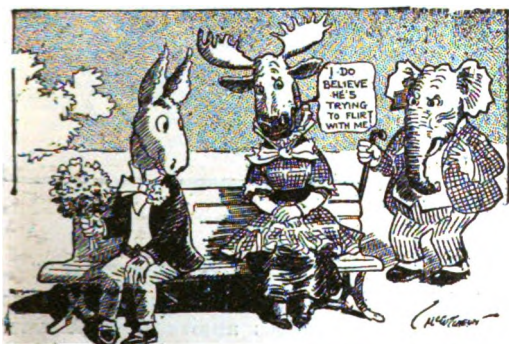


Press Publishing Co.

HOMELESS!
From the *World* (New York)



"STOP!"
From the *News* (Newark)



John T. McCutcheon

THE DONKEY HAS HOPES
From the *Tribune* (Chicago)



BACK WITH MOTHER
From the *Leader* (Cleveland)



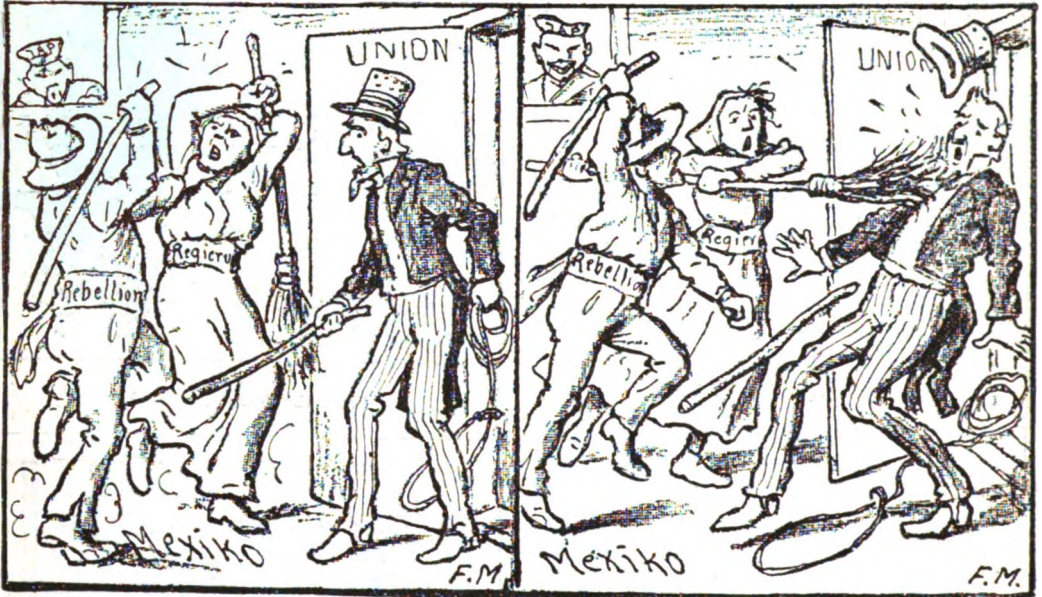
Philadelphia Inquirer Co.

BEATS THE STEAM ROLLER
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia)



FLIRTING WITH THE WIDOW
From the *Star* (St. Louis)

SOME FOREIGN CARTOONS



THE REJECTED INTERVENTION

UNCLE SAM: "You had better stop abusing your wife immediately, or there will be—"

TROUBLE!"

From Nebelspalter (Zurich)



WILSON IN THE MEXICAN CACTUS

He has had no luck with Germany; no wonder: how can he make progress forward, when the brambles are catching him from behind?

From the Lustige Blätter ① (Berlin)

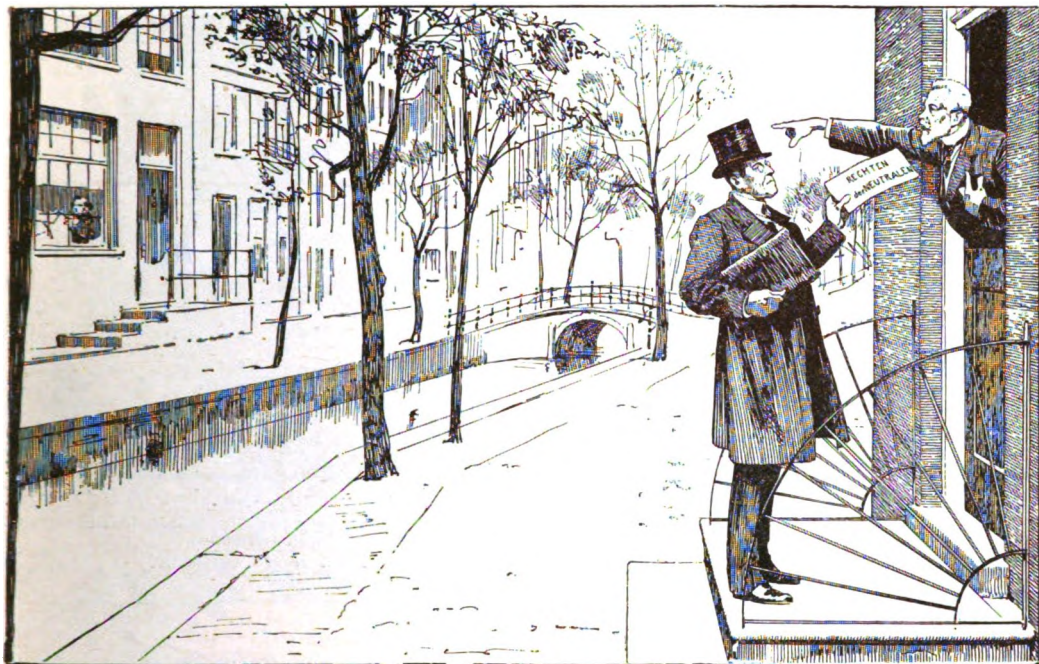
ALTHOUGH the European cartoonists have momentous affairs of their own to deal with, they manage to keep a critical eye on what is happening across the Atlantic.



WILSON'S DEAREST WISH

"There is a British Viceroy of India—Why not one of America?"

From Simplicissimus ② (Munich)



AMERICA AND GERMANY

WILSON

VON BETHMANN HOLLWEG

VON BETHMANN HOLLWEG: "By Heaven, we'll only pay half the score; you'll have to ask the gentleman across the way to settle the rest."

BAILIFF WILSON: "Very good; just begin to pay me cash for your share, then."

From *De Amsterdamer* (Amsterdam)



ILLUSTRATING GERMANY'S REPLY TO THE AMERICAN NOTE

WILSON: "Why are you weeping, my son?"

LITTLE GERMAN MICHEL: "You give presents to every one else, but from me you wish to take even my one favorite toy!"

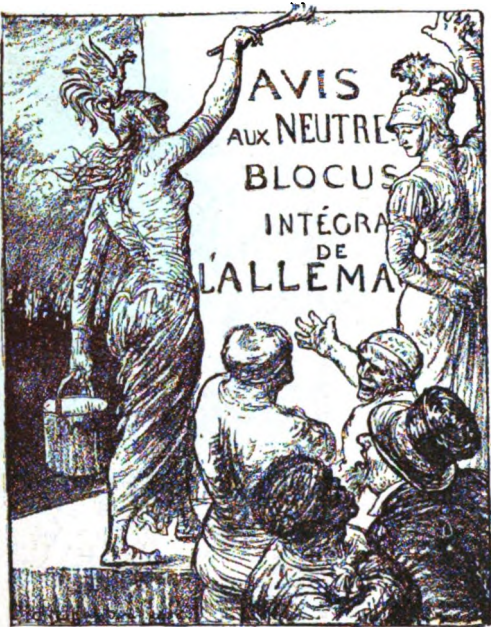
From *Nebelspalter* (Zurich)



PUTTING IT DIRECTLY TO THE KAISER

"The responsibility is personal, it is not common; it is absolute, and not relative." (American note to Germany)

From *Le Rire* © (Paris)



THE NEUTRALS COMPLAIN AGAINST THE BLOCKADE OF GERMANY

THE NEUTRALS: "We have endured, without saying anything, the invasion of Belgium, the massacres of civilians, the *Lusitania* affair, the attempts to destroy munition plants, the violation of the Hague conventions which we signed—but indeed, our patience has limits, and we cannot submit to have you hinder us from making money by revictualing your enemies."

From *Le Rire* (Paris)

With the exception of the little cartoon from the South African *Cape Times*, this page deals with the relations of the neutral nations to the war. Their troubles in this regard have grown largely out of the interference by the belligerents with their shipping.



A PECULIAR THEORY

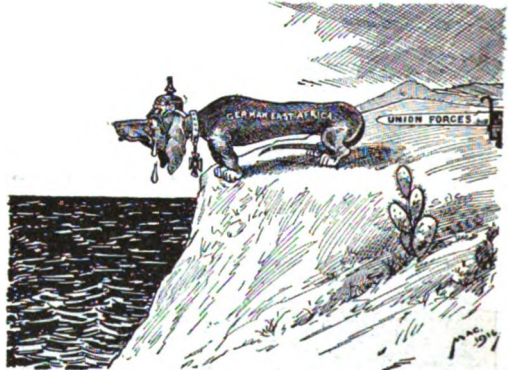
DR. WILSON: "Take my advice, Jonathan, and keep out of it. They are all mad!"
("Since the rest of the world was mad, why should we not refuse to have anything to do with the rest of the world?"—President Wilson)

From the *Western Mail* (Cardiff, Wales)



UNCLE SAM LEAPING INTO THE ALLIES' RANKS
(An Italian view of America's diplomatic negotiations with Germany)

From *Il L'Espresso* (Florence)



MAROONED

GERMAN EAST AFRICA (the last survivor of Germany's overseas possessions): "Oh, where is the fleet of my fatherland?"

From the *Cape Times* (Cape Town, South Africa)



THE POWER OF SMALL COUNTRIES

NETHERLANDS: "I haven't got my little ship back yet. And they're taking the cargo, too."

GREECE AND SWEDEN: "But you'll be smart if you stick firmly to your demands. Then you can put anything over on the big fellows, just like us."

From *De Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam)



"THE PROPOSITION IS BEATEN!"

The Russian Duma had decided that the 'Germans must be driven out of Russia. Only one vote was against it—Hindenburg's!

From *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin)

The Germans continue to take immense pride in their greatest military hero. The above cartoon from a Hindenburg number of *Lustige Blätter* shows their faith in that



THE GERMAN PLAGUES

JOHN BULL: "Again I say, I wish to have nothing whatever to do with German products!"

From *Ullrich* © (Berlin)

commander's ability to hold the Russian territory taken by him.

England always comes in for a good deal of bantering from the German cartoonists on account of her reverses of various kinds and her vulnerability to aerial assaults.



THOSE STINGING INSECTS

JOHN BULL: "If I only had the right insect powder for those bugs!"

From *Nebelspalter* (Zurich)



THE GERMAN AERIAL RAIDS

THE BRITISH LION: "When it comes to flying, that bird certainly has it over me!"

From *Der Brummer* © (Berlin)



THE RUSSIAN SURPRISE

THE TEUTON POWERS: "Well, well, we thought it a small toy!"
From *l'Asino* (Rome)

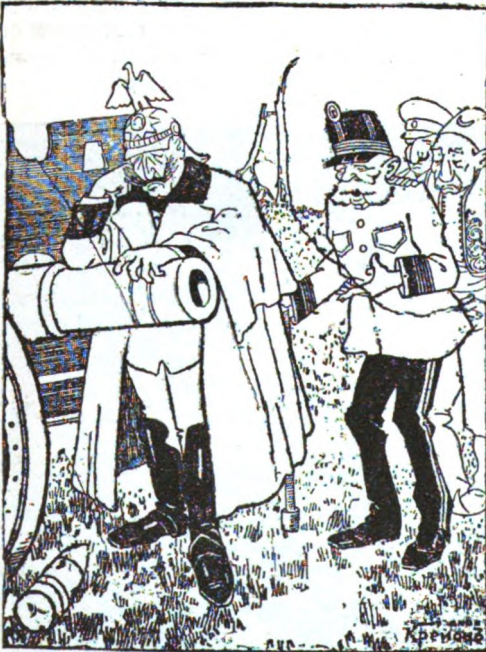
The two cartoons above—one from an Italian, the other from a Spanish source—suggest the keen interest with which all



RUSSIA WAKING UP

BEAR: "It can be said that I was tied up; but I was not tied up well."
From *L'Esquella de la Torratxa* (Barcelona)

Europe has watched the "coming back" of the Russian armies during the past few weeks. The grim Russian attitude towards German peace talk is indicated by the Odessa cartoon below.



TORTURING THOUGHTS

KAISER WILHELM: "Are the Allies going to offer me peace terms or not?"
FRANZ JOSEF: "Don't break your head over that! They'll break it for you, when the time comes."
From *Odesski Listok* (Odessa, Russia)



THE ADVANCE OF CIVILIZATION

The highwaymen of yesterday and of to-day.
(Apropos of England's holding up of neutral commerce)
From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin)

WILSON THE CANDIDATE

BY L. AMES BROWN

FOR the first time in recent years the Democratic party enters the Presidential campaign upon the right side of an issue of vital importance to the country. That issue is the record of the administration of President Woodrow Wilson, whom the party renominated at its convention in St. Louis early in June. The country, in this most solemn hour of its destiny, is asked to pass judgment upon the record of the Democratic President and to indicate at the polls in November whether it desires to retain his leadership in the uncertainties of a future which may be altogether as troublous as the time during which he has directed the foreign and domestic policies of the Government.

As the protagonist of his own achievements, the President goes before the country in fulfilment of a solemn duty, conceived by him before he took the oath of office. He is carrying out the obligation he then recognized of submitting his administration to the country for its approval or disapproval. He has sought to interpret the soul of a nation during a period when that soul was tried by conflicting emotions. Now he asks to be judged. He conceives that no other course is open to him in honor, while his party realizes that it has no other man to typify the issues it has submitted to the nation.

For this reason and no other the President enters the political lists again. Were circumstances different, were the traditions of the Presidency other than what they are, I am justified in saying that the President would gratefully surrender to other trustworthy hands the responsibilities he has borne for the past four years. He has passed through a trial of heart flames, and, if in the past he nurtured ambitions, he is as barren of them to-day as have been other men at other stages in the history of mankind when it was given them to foot the lofty eminences of life and realize the emptiness of mere personal aspiration.

THE MAN HIMSELF THE REAL ISSUE

Mr. Wilson comes before the people without a shibboleth. It was a sensible newspaper correspondent at Chicago who referred

to the "so-called issue of Americanism." Americanism is not the issue. No abstraction is the issue and no generality can cover it. The issue is the man who has controlled the Executive branch of the Government since March 4, 1913, and his acts. Other matters are unimportant, comparatively speaking, but he and what he has done relate vitally to the course the nation's history is to follow. Americanism he defines as his own acts in shaping the foreign policy of the Government. He asserts the correctness of this definition and leaves it to the country to accept him or reject him according to its estimate of his executive labors.

KEEPING THE PEACE AND SAFEGUARDING AMERICAN RIGHTS

Mr. Wilson offers himself as a candidate primarily as the man who has preserved the nation's peace in a time when war was revealing itself in a revolting character never before presented to mankind. He has preserved the peace and withal safeguarded against the dangers of Germany's early, lawless submarine operations the lives of those Americans who travel on the high seas in the future. For a year he relied upon negotiations to procure these safeguards, despite the fact that in this period the *Lusitania* was destroyed and other lawless depredations were committed by Germany which aroused a substantial element of the electorate to dissatisfaction with that patient course. But at the end he succeeded.

At the end he achieved the purpose which would have animated any other President who had followed a different policy. Surely it need not be restated that had any one of those who offered themselves as candidates against Mr. Wilson at Chicago been President when Germany began her illegal submarine campaign, his chief purpose would have been to procure a permanent abatement of that campaign. Mr. Wilson's policy has succeeded, then, and his favor or disfavor with the people must rest upon their justification of the means by which this end was achieved. Imputations of weakness will not be permitted to obscure the fact that, faulty or not, "heroic" or not, his policy succeeded

with respect to the principal wish of every patriotic American in the crisis it was evolved to meet. Maledictions against his "ignoble" "vacillation" will not prevent an appreciation of his ultimate attainment when, to borrow from a convention orator, "the proudest spirit that ever brooded over a battlefield had to bow in acknowledgment of the rectitude of the demands which our President made in behalf of his country and humanity."

Thus far the opposition to Mr. Wilson has avoided the obligation of formulating an unequivocal statement of the faults they charge against him. The Republican platform-makers limited themselves to the easy task of destructive criticism. Such avoidance cannot continue, however, for I am sufficiently familiar with the campaign plans of the President's supporters to know that they will force the fighting with this clearly defined challenge.

They will not permit the opposition to rest its case upon mere assertions of Mr. Wilson's shortcomings. It is a parlous future which the country faces, and the voters intend to come as nearly as they can to passing upon fixed quantities, to choosing between certainties as closely as certainties can be approximated. Mr. Wilson's policy is expressed in acts and not in generalities. His policy, if he is returned to office, will not be different from what it has been since August, 1914. He will insist that definite, not general, pledges be pitted against it.

The other foreign policy of Mr. Wilson on which the country must pass is his Mexican policy. He has dealt with Mexico in the kindly spirit inspired by the possession of superior power. He has encouraged the development of constitutional government there, the while that a feeling of kinship among all the nations of this hemisphere was fostered. He has endeavored to maintain peace between that troubled country and the United States, knowing well that a policy based upon the use of physical force always was accessible as an effective last resort.

THE PRESIDENT'S PREPAREDNESS RECORD

Linked with these issues on which Mr. Wilson's political future rests is that of preparedness, naval expansion and development of the army from the standpoint of size and efficiency. He has taken a stand far in advance of his party on this issue. By a vigorous personal campaign he has compelled the majority of Congress to assent to his views that the army and navy be adequately pre-

pared. He has delivered speeches without number advocating military preparation, he has walked as a private citizen in a preparedness parade, and, as a result of his activities, the authorization of the greatest army and navy development program ever adopted by Congress in peace times is assured. The issue between the President and his opposition is merely one of a few more fighting ships and a different method of bringing the army expansion about, but the opposition does not cavil at the statement that he had procured the maximum of authorizations which could have been forced from the present Congress. His record on preparedness is a most efficient performance.

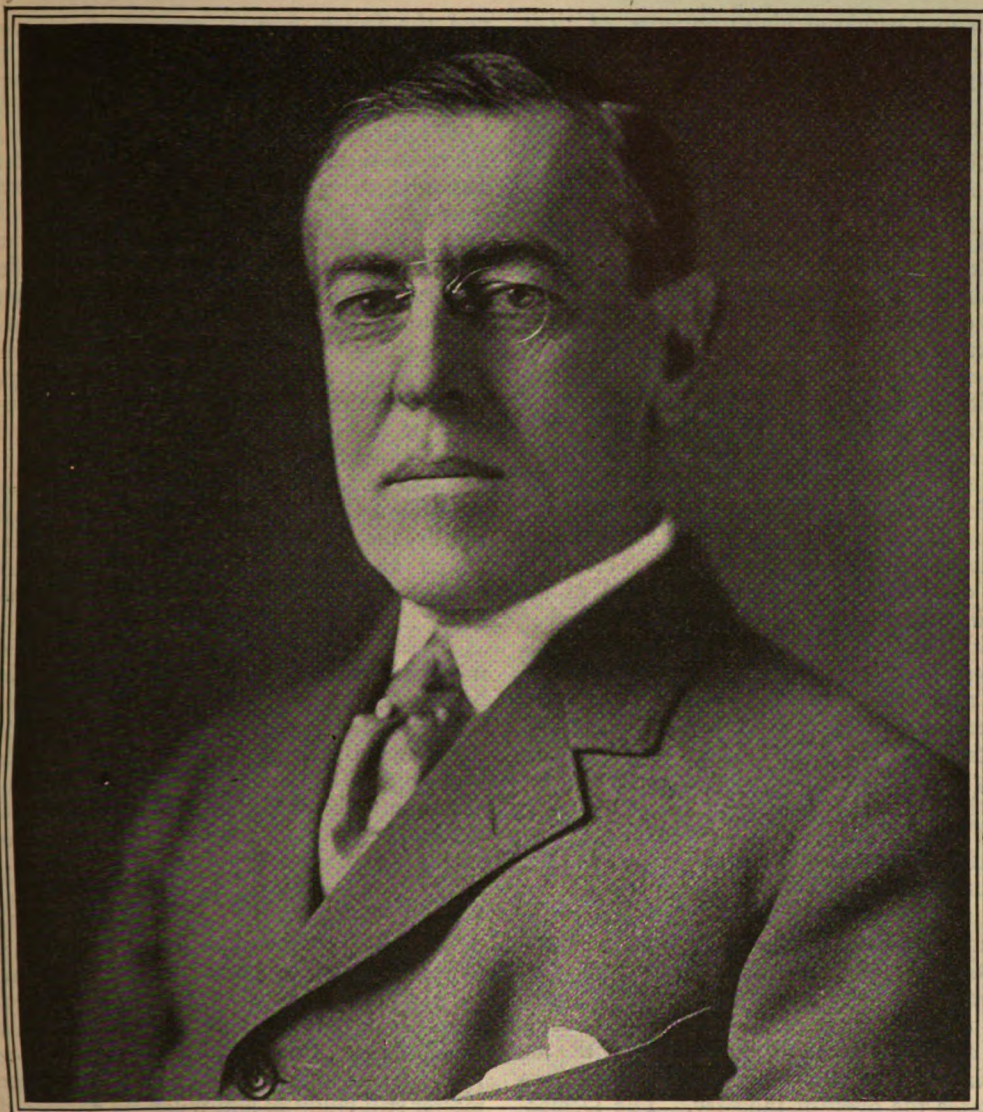
DOMESTIC POLICIES

What would be Mr. Wilson's status as a candidate, did not this vital matter of international relations overshadow all else? How would he stand and what would be his prospects were it possible for him to be judged solely in the light of his record as administrator of the domestic affairs of the Government? Could he win if he had no claim to the suffrage of the nation other than that based upon the extent to which his administration has promoted the happiness and welfare of the people?

Consider this: The chief legislative measures for which the President stands personally responsible are the Underwood Tariff Act, the Federal Reserve Act, the Trade Commission Act, the Rural Credits Act, and the Tariff Commission Act. There is an imposing number of business, labor, and public-welfare enactments besides, which I have no space to discuss here. It is the greatest legislative achievement of any American President of modern times. All of the measures named, with the exception of the tariff act, have received or are certain to receive the support of substantial bodies of Republicans in Congress. The Republican platform criticizes the Rural Credits Act, but a majority of Republican members of Congress voted for the measure. The Republican platform declared for a Tariff Commission, and its authors refused to consider any declaration in criticism of the Currency Act, knowing too well the heartiness of the country's appreciation of that measure.

THE "FULL DINNER PAIL"

As for the tariff, it should be said that the country is more prosperous than it ever has been. Mr. Wilson will not demand all of the credit for the tremendous business ex-



© Harris & Ewing, Washington, D. C.

PRESIDENT WOODROW WILSON

pansion of the past three years. He is content that this expansion has taken place and that the "full dinner pail" is here. At most, the tariff issue is in abeyance. Mr. Wilson came into office under an unequivocal mandate from the country to lower the tariff wall which isolated American industry from "fair competition" with the industry of the world. The only tenable argument for the withdrawal of this popular command would be a recrudescence of hard times. This has not taken place. Until the end of the war has nullified the conditions which prevent a fair test of the Democratic tariff, the country is unlikely to reject it.

So much for the negative side of the pros-

perity issue, if it can be called an issue. Mr. Wilson will not fail to challenge the statement that he does not share the responsibility for it. He will point to the fashion in which his Administration forestalled a certain panic when the financial centers of the world were paralyzed by the war's outbreak. He will point to the enactment of the currency reserve law which insures ample credits in stringent times and allows the fullest business expansion and the utmost facility of crop movement consonant with sound principles. He will point to the fact that as things now stand, the munitions business approximates only 5 per cent. of the nation's commerce. The country never has changed administra-

tions in a period of high prosperity. Call it superficial reasoning, if you like, to impute prosperous conditions to the party in power, but the fact remains that the "full dinner pail" has been the most successful campaign slogan of American politics.

TARIFF CHANGES

The atmosphere at Washington is one which should inspire confidence and not foreboding among business men. There is nothing ominous in it. The Democracy has no threat in its platform or in the public utterances of its candidate against the future prosperity of the nation. The President's anxiety to facilitate the financial upbuilding of the railroads is but one evidence of his intent to conserve by every practicable means the prosperity to which he believes the happiness of every nation is vitally linked. His attitude is not even propitious for those who advocate his overthrow as the proper method of insuring industrial well-being through higher tariff duties. The President not only has taken the responsibility for the enactment of a Tariff Commission Act, but he has pledged himself to an impartial consideration of the facts which this Commission's investigations may disclose as to the need for tariff changes at the end of the war.

The President's aim in readjusting the tariff to the new conditions which the United States must face after the war will be to insure "fair competition." His whole trend of mind in the last two years of his administration has been away from the radical ideas upon which the free-trade creed is founded. In at least one respect Mr. Wilson intends to adopt an attitude in accord with the wishes of business protectionists. That is as regards the dyestuff industry. The Democracy will levy tariff duties on dyes imported after the war, with the avowed purpose of facilitating the growth of an infant industry. The President's attitude on these two points already has had a most soothing influence upon the business community. It has fostered the impression that the days of radical business legislation under Mr. Wilson's leadership are over; that he was in earnest when he said that tariff, currency, and anti-trust laws made up his "Constitution of Peace" for the business world; or, to use a phrase in high favor with one of the President's most trusted advisers, he has "performed the operation which he deemed necessary to the ultimate welfare of business" and now is concerned only with measures for facilitating the recovery from this operation

and the fuller growth which it has made possible.

A FRIEND OF ORGANIZED LABOR

We turn from the employers of labor to labor itself to find even more ample basis for anticipating the success of Mr. Wilson's candidacy. He enters the campaign as the recognized friend of labor. It is a far cry from the 1912 campaign when labor leaders assailed Mr. Wilson for his written opinions on immigration and other labor questions to the opening of the present campaign when they appeared before the Republican platform committee at Chicago to urge first of all that the labor legislation adopted under his administration be retained.

These enactments met what the President considered the just demands of labor. Principally they specified that labor should no longer be regarded as an inanimate commodity, but raised it to the level of human life.

Thus it will be seen that the Wilson Administration has undertaken to serve both parties to the so-called industrial dispute. The President has found it possible so often to advance the interests of one party without violating the rights of the other, that his administration has had the influence of a soothing hand upon a situation of gathering ominousness.

FROM CRUSADER TO ADMINISTRATOR

It would be difficult to indicate the extent to which the country has altered its estimate of Mr. Wilson as a man since his election in 1912. Unquestionably he is a much more robust figure in the public mind than he was four years ago. The sobriquet of Schoolmaster still clung to him when he entered the White House. He was regarded as an austere figure, not easy of access to the emotions and the human appeal, with a mind which might be misled by fantastic ideas through lack of practical knowledge where-with to test them. People know more about Mr. Wilson now than they did then. They are better acquainted with his faults for one thing; indeed, some of the things for which he has been criticized are as far removed as the poles from the qualities disapproved in that earlier time.

Mr. Wilson has turned out to be a man who can both give and take hard blows. He has emerged as a human being. The sympathy of the people has gone out to him in bitter personal sorrows and under malignments which were known to be unjust.

Soberly and with mutual understanding, Mr. Wilson and his constituents have learned that perfection cannot be achieved suddenly, that even in the life of a nation the reach must exceed the grasp in order to predicate the joy of future endeavor. Mr. Wilson came into office a crusader, with many fine phrasings on his lips of a purpose to weed out the undergrowth from the tariff jungle, and to smite the body of privilege. He submits his future to the suffrage of the nation in November as an administrator sobered by experience, his crusading purposes accomplished in part and for the rest displaced by constructive purposes.

THE APPEAL TO THE INDEPENDENT VOTER

Seldom in our history has the outcome of a national election depended with such an approximation of entirety upon the personality and achievements of an individual. Mr. Wilson's candidacy is to an unusual degree dissociated from the candidacies of his party colleagues. He stands upon his own record, distinctive for the instances wherein he has enforced his will upon the Democratic leaders who sought to have to do with the position which the party should occupy in the present campaign. Mr. Bryan, formerly the titular leader of the Democratic party, and most of the paramount issues on which he appealed to the emotions of the nation, are upon the political scrap-heap. Many other Democratic leaders, conspicuous in the activities of their party before Mr. Wilson's sudden accession to power, have been relegated to the background. So it is that the men to whom Mr. Wilson has entrusted the management of his campaign are planning to make a most earnest appeal to the voters who are acknowledged members of no political party. Mr. Wilson is heartily in accord with these plans, for he has sponsored the opinion that neither of the old political parties includes a majority of the voters of the nation and that no Presidential candidate can be elected in a straight-out contest

who polls no more than the vote of his party.

The section of the electorate which thus holds the balance of power in the national election cannot easily be misled. Mr. Wilson fully realizes this. In most cases a man withdraws from his party organization only after a somewhat intense intellectual experience productive of a clearer understanding of political principles. The independent voter, much more than the members of the political parties, will record his impartial convictions on Mr. Wilson's acts at the polls in November. If the independent voter is content and happy with the maintenance of the country's present international and domestic status, he will cast his ballot for Mr. Wilson. If he is convinced that the country is in need of moral and spiritual regeneration, that the administration of Mr. Wilson has permitted the national conscience to be dulled and the national aspirations to be reduced to a lower level, that a change for the better is needed in order that American ideals be vindicated; in other words, if he is inclined to a venture rather than the acceptance of an existing certainty, he will consider the claim of the political aspirants who appeal for Mr. Wilson's removal in their own behalf.

Mr. Wilson has no misgivings as to the electorate's judgment upon himself, however. As this is written he is at the highest point of popular favor which he ever has enjoyed. The Democracy is proud of him and assumes a militant air. Republicanism fears him, as is evidenced by the panicky effort to choose a winning candidate at Chicago. The pacifists believe that, despite Mr. Wilson's commitment to preparedness, he is as thoroughly imbued as they with the spirit of opposition to militarism. The preparedness organizations must attribute to his leadership the greatest defense program in the nation's history. Democrat and Republican, pacifist and defense extremist, and the independent voter as well, are prosperous as they never before have been and the country pursues the even tenor of peace times.



CHARLES E. HUGHES AS A POLITICAL FIGURE

BY WILLIAM B. SHAW

WHATEVER else the national conventions decided last month, they fixed the character of the Presidential campaign once and for all in this respect: It is to be a contest between two outstanding personalities, conducted on a high level and with less reference than formerly to party lines and traditions. Less than ever before in our history, since the time of Washington, will men be moved to vote for either of the candidates merely because he is a Democrat or a Republican. There are literally millions of American voters this year who may be led by the developments of the campaign to support one or other of the candidates without regard to the past or present party affiliations of either. It will not be any party platform or propaganda that will determine these votes, now doubtful; it will be the individual character of each candidate, as it is seen to react to the national problems of the hour.

The conventions themselves were simply organized tributes to the personalities of the men they nominated. At St. Louis, Democracy voiced its confidence in the first Democratic administration that had completely controlled the national government since the Civil War. It knew and rejoiced in the things that had been planned and done at Washington and endorsed the reasons that had been given for doing them. It was natural that President Wilson, as titular and actual leader of his party, should have received the testimonial of a renomination at the hands of a grateful party; but as a personal distinction the naming of Justice Hughes by the Republicans at Chicago in the preceding week was even more significant. In all our one hundred and twenty years of party divisions, this was probably the first instance in which, at a time of real crisis in national affairs, a man was seriously proposed for the Presidency whose views on current issues were unknown to the public.

The amazing feature of the episode was that it came as the culmination of a brief ten years of public life, six of which had been passed in retirement from every form of political activity. That a national party, with so scant an opportunity to test a candidate,

should yet be willing to place its fate in his hands, without pledge or hostage of any kind, attests that candidate's command of popular confidence in a most exceptional degree. What is the real basis of that confidence?

Before attempting to answer that question it would be well to recall a few of those facts in Mr. Hughes' career which sharply differentiate his public record from that of the average lawyer who "goes in for politics." In the first place, Mr. Hughes never "went in for politics" in the ordinary sense of the phrase. It would be more accurate to say that politics went after him. For bear in mind—and this is the vital point—Mr. Hughes had "made good" in his profession before the public ever heard of him, and it was because he had made good, and only for that reason, that the call of "politics" came to him at all.

The pages of our political history, recent and past, are full of the names of successful politicians who entered public life from the legal profession; but how many of them owed their introduction to politics solely to their proved capacity as lawyers? In the case of Mr. Hughes this was what happened: A studious, hard-working young lawyer in New York City had gradually won recognition from his fellow practitioners at the bar and had been singled out as one of the ablest of the little group of lawyers in the metropolis who follow their calling for sheer love of it and give their time to difficult branches of commercial law. Never a "corporation lawyer," he had never enjoyed a large income from fees—as such incomes are rated in New York—and to the general public he was known not at all.

PROBING THE GAS TRUST

He was a "lawyers' lawyer," respected by his colleagues at the bar and a member of one of the old and well-connected firms, when a legislative committee came down from Albany charged with the duty of investigating the metropolitan lighting companies. Such committees have not always commanded universal respect for their motives, but in this instance honesty was de-

cidedly the best policy, even from the standpoint of party politics, and Chairman Stevens persuaded his colleagues that the situation demanded the services of the ablest and most upright counsel that could be had. They were directed to Mr. Hughes' door and thus opened an opportunity for disinterested public service such as seldom comes to any man, for the gas companies of New York sorely needed an overhauling and, although the consumers did not know it and Mr. Hughes himself may not at first have realized it, the one man in the city who was fitted to do the work was the man whom the committee selected as counsel.

The searching inquiry that Mr. Hughes conducted into the operations of the New York Gas Trust had direct and far-reaching results. No one had ever before analyzed the accounts of the lighting companies to show whether or not they were entitled to the rates that they were then receiving from the public with the sanction of law. Mr. Hughes brought to bear on the problem the same thorough-going methods and relentless energy that had made him master of his law cases from the beginning of his practise. The

report of the committee drafted by him convinced both the public and the Legislature and ultimately all of its essential recommendations were embodied in law. The concrete result that made Mr. Hughes' name known to every citizen of New York was the achievement of eighty-cent gas.

THE INSURANCE INVESTIGATION

While the gas investigation brought Mr. Hughes into city and State prominence, he was made a national figure by his association with the insurance investigation. A scandal in the Equitable Life Assurance Society had led to the appointment of a legislative committee to investigate the whole insurance field, and in view of Mr. Hughes' striking success as inquisitor for the gas committee it is not strange that Senator Armstrong and his colleagues on the insurance committee should choose him to conduct this more difficult and important line of investigation. Mr. Hughes was traveling in the Tyrol and was asked by cable if he would accept the work. He replied affirmatively, making the one condition that he should be absolutely unhampered by any influence, direct or indirect. Of what followed, Mr. Ervin Wardman, writing in this REVIEW for November, 1906, said:

If the range of the gas inquiry was broad, the scope of the insurance investigation was vast. During its progress there was neither week-day nor Sunday, night after night, in unbroken succession that was not filled with the labor of going over the testimony word by word



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CHARLES EVANS HUGHES AS HE IS TO-DAY

for new clues, of searching letter books and records without number, of delving in books that were monuments in their mass, of hearing the stories of those who had information to give and of sounding rumors and suspicions to the bottom. To undergo this midnight test of endurance of detail and drudgery was marvelous; to arrive in the chamber where the hearings took place, every morning, fresh, cool, keen, and resolute for the

brilliant daily duel was a surpassing feat of both brain and body.

Thus a way had come to this New York lawyer to render a unique service to the people of his city and of the nation at large. This was in the year 1905. In that autumn a mayor was to be elected in New York City, and the Republican nomination was tendered to Mr. Hughes. He declined the nomination on the ground that he was already engaged in work of a public character which must be kept absolutely free from political bias, and that he was bound by every obligation of duty to see the thing through as the public had asked and expected him to do. He therefore went on with the investigation, and when the work was through it is said he worked twenty hours a day preparing the report of the committee.

BECOMES GOVERNOR OF NEW YORK

As the Republican organization of New York City had stood in dire need of a candidate for mayor in 1905, so the State organization in the fall of 1906 was hard pressed to find a winning candidate for Governor. By this time Mr. Hughes was no longer numbered among the "unknowns." Everybody in the State knew something about his work in the two investigations and his capacity for leadership, but his activities thus far had not especially endeared him to the gentlemen who in those days looked after the interests of the Republican organization. As the convention assembled, a suggestion came from the White House at Washington, at that time occupied by a somewhat conspicuous New Yorker, to the effect that the nomination of Mr. Hughes was demanded by the best interests of the party and the State. Whether or not the "Big Stick" was potentially effective in this instance, it is a fact that the Republican State convention acceded to the expressed wishes of President Roosevelt and made Mr. Hughes its standard-bearer for that campaign. Both Mr. Hughes and the party had their hands full that year in defeating William R. Hearst, but the feat was accomplished, with a comfortable margin of votes, although Mr. Hughes' associates on the State ticket lost to Democrats. Thus Mr. Hughes was transferred from the bar to the field of practical politics and government, not by his own volition, but because the State needed his abilities and "drafted" him for its service.

His election as Governor of New York made Charles E. Hughes at once a force to be reckoned with in American politics. The

leaders, or rather managers, of his party in the State began to reckon with him in their own way—as they had reckoned with every Governor that their organization had helped to put in office. Roosevelt in 1899 had counseled with them and then had followed his own course. He had been a real Governor; but from Hughes, the novice in politics, no such rôle was expected. They soon learned that executive appointments could not be dictated by them or anyone else. The Governor's office was thrown open to the public, and every citizen who had anything to say about any matter of State business was heard, but the man in the Governor's chair made his own decisions.

A REAL GOVERNOR, NOT AFRAID OF THE BOSSES

Executive independence did not end at that point, however. The administration came into office pledged to certain definite constructive work of great importance to the State. The new insurance laws were to be set going and the regulation of public-service corporations made effective. Politicians who tried to thwart the administration's program found that they had a real fight on their hands. They won a few temporary victories, but in the long run the Governor had his way. When the race-track gambling bills came up for passage there was a square issue between the Governor and certain members of his own party in the Legislature. Influential Republican leaders outside the Legislature attempted to secure the defeat of the bills. It was then that Governor Hughes announced that he would "appeal to the people"—a phrase that the Old Guard took as a joke until they found that it was loaded; for the Governor made good his threat, went out on the stump, and aroused popular sentiment to such a degree that the recalcitrant legislators either had to vote for the bills or lose their precious legislative heads; and so it was the Governor who had the last laugh.

A SECOND TERM AT ALBANY

In 1908 the Governor's term expired and there was a demand for his reelection, but the sound of that demand was drowned in the cries of the politicians who had been hurt and were as eager to get rid of Hughes as they had been to get rid of Roosevelt eight years before. There was a President to be chosen that year and again a voice from Washington suggested that the renomination of Hughes was needed to strengthen the national ticket. The advice proved sound, for



JUSTICE AND MRS. CHARLES E. HUGHES AND FAMILY

(In 1888 Mr. Hughes married Miss Antoinette Carter, the daughter of the senior member of his law firm. Mr. and Mrs. Hughes have three daughters and a son. Miss Helen Hughes is an honor graduate of Vassar College; the second daughter, Miss Catherine, was graduated from the National Cathedral School for Girls last month. The son, Charles E. Hughes, Jr., is a graduate of Brown University and the Harvard Law School, and is now practising in New York)

the aid given by Governor Hughes to the Taft campaign in a speech at Youngstown and in a series of speeches in the Middle West was accounted one of the important factors in carrying the Presidential election. He had become a most effective campaigner. The Governor himself was reëlected and went bravely on with the reform movements already begun. He worked in season and out for a direct primary law, and although his efforts did not come to full fruition during his term as Governor, it is due to him

more than to any other one man that such a measure was finally enacted.

The big achievement of the Hughes administration was the establishment of the two Public Service Commissions, one for New York City and the other for the remainder of the State. To these commissions was entrusted the regulation of the transportation companies and also of lighting and other public utilities. These bodies have not accomplished the full measure of corporation control in the interest of the public that was

expected of them, for their personnel has at times fallen below the high standard set by Governor Hughes in his first appointments. But notwithstanding shortcomings the commissions have brought the public utilities of the State under a system of governmental inspection and regulation that marks an immense advance from the conditions that existed when Mr. Hughes began his Gas Trust inquiry.

It should not be assumed that the Governor merely swam with the current in advocating popular measures. He incurred severe criticism from some of his own supporters by his veto of the two-cent fare bill, on the ground that this was a matter to be determined by the Public Service Commission, and his protest against the Federal income-tax amendment, which, he argued, would confer on Congress the power to tax incomes derived from State and municipal bonds. To both propositions he was opposed on principle, and he set forth cogently and fearlessly the reasons that guided him in his attitude.

Of Mr. Hughes as an executive it has been said that the qualities of the trained lawyer, the thoroughness of analysis, the ability to penetrate a mass of intricate detail, to see straight through and on into the results of a proposed measure, and to visualize those results, gave him a vast superiority over the ordinary administrator in making and formulating decisions.

CALLED TO THE SUPREME COURT

It was doubtless his knowledge that the Governor possessed these exceptional abilities, as well as a natural attraction towards a gifted member of his own profession, that led President Taft, in the spring of 1910, to name Mr. Hughes as an Associate Justice of the United States Supreme Court. The

The Hughes Chronology

April 11, 1862—Born, Glens Falls, N. Y.
 1876-78—Student, Colgate University
 1879-81—Student, Brown University
 1881—Graduated, Brown University (A.B.)
 1884—Graduated, Columbia Law School
 1884—Admitted to New York bar
 1884-87—Prize Fellowship Columbia Law School
 December 5, 1888—Married Antoinette Carter
 1884-91—Practised law, New York City
 1891-93—Professor of Law, Cornell
 1893-95—Special lecturer, Cornell
 1893-1900—Special lecturer, New York Law School
 1893-1906—Practised law, New York City
 1905—Counsel, Stevens Gas Committee (New York Legislature)
 1905-06—Counsel, Armstrong Insurance Committee (New York Legislature)
 1906—Special Assistant to United States Attorney General in coal investigation
 1905—Nominated for Mayor of New York by Republican convention, but declined
 1907-10—Governor of New York
 October 6, 1910—Resigned Governorship
 October 10, 1910—Became Associate Justice, United States Supreme Court
 June 10, 1916—Nominated for President of the United States by the Republican National Convention at Chicago
 June 10, 1916—Accepted nomination
 June 10, 1916—Resigned Supreme Court seat

appointment was well received in every quarter and to Mr. Hughes himself it appeared as the fulfilment of a lifelong ambition. He therefore resigned the Governorship and took his seat on the bench October 10, 1910. From that day to the tenth day of June, 1916, no comment on public affairs escaped his lips. If he had been immured on Devil's Island for those six years, instead of living at the National Capital, his opinions on American problems and issues could not have been more effectually concealed from his fellow citizens. This was in accord with his own high conception of the dignity of the judicial office and it prevented the

bandying of his name in factional politics.

This article did not set out to tell what Mr. Hughes believes. Before this magazine comes under the reader's eye he will have done that himself, in his speech of acceptance. The aim of this article is to contribute in some degree to the popular knowledge of what Mr. Hughes represents in his person and character, as a citizen called to take a great part in a national campaign involving mighty issues.

EARLY HISTORY

Charles E. Hughes was born fifty-four years ago at Glens Falls, N. Y., the son of a Baptist clergyman of Welsh extraction. He was studious and was early ready for college. His college work was divided between Colgate (then Madison) University, at Hamilton, N. Y., and Brown University, Providence, R. I., where he graduated in 1881. He studied at the Columbia Law School, New York, and was admitted to the bar in 1884. After seven years of practise in the city he became a professor in the Cornell University Law School, but returned to active practise in 1893.

THE DEMOCRATIC CANDIDATE FOR VICE-PRESIDENT

THE Honorable Thomas Riley Marshall has been filling the distinguished position of Vice-President of the United States, with ability and dignity, for the past three years and more. Such is the anonymity attaching to this important office, however, that the greatest national publicity that has come to Mr. Marshall during this entire period was when the Democratic party unanimously renominated him at St. Louis last month.

When he was first chosen as President Wilson's running mate on the Democratic ticket in 1912, Mr. Marshall was Governor of Indiana, a position which he was occupying with distinction for the second time. His State thought so well of him that he was its favorite son for Presidential honors at the Baltimore convention in 1912. When he ran for Governor the first time Marshall was elected by 15,000 majority, although Taft carried the State for President by 10,000.

As Governor, Marshall made an excellent record and strongly supported many measures for political, industrial, and social reform. Bills for the regulation of railroads, child labor, and the safeguarding of workers in various lines of employment, received his strong endorsement, as did also the income tax amendment and that for the popular election of Senators.

Until his election as Governor of Indiana, Mr. Marshall had never held office, but had kept steadily at his law work. He began practising at Columbia City, Indiana, on his twenty-first birthday. His fame and reputa-

tion as a lawyer soon spread beyond the borders of his county until he grew to be recognized as one of the ablest lawyers in the State.

Mr. Marshall is distinctly an Indiana product. North Manchester was his birthplace, in 1854; Wabash College, at Crawfordsville, was his alma mater; an Indiana girl—Lois I. Kimsey, of Angola—became his wife, and his whole professional career was built up in his native State.

Since Americanism is made so much of at present, it is appropriate to mention that Marshall's roots go deep into patriotic soil. A granduncle of his was the great Chief Justice John Marshall, while on his mother's side he is descended from Charles Carroll, of Carrollton, one of the "signers."

Personally, Marshall is by no means oversized, and is rather slender and wiry. He has a kindly face and a quiet manner. He is a lover of books, and is fond of children, though not blessed with any of his own. His friends say

that Tom Marshall is a good neighbor, a genial companion, and a capital story-teller. Many tales are told also of his modest generosity to children and needy young men. As a speaker he is popular and effective, both in a political campaign and before a Chautauqua audience. Five educational institutions have conferred on him the degree of LL.D. It is not astonishing, in view of his character as a man, his reputation as a lawyer, and his record as Governor and Vice-President, that Indiana loves Tom Marshall and is proud of her distinguished son.



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THOMAS R. MARSHALL

THE REPUBLICAN CANDIDATE FOR VICE-PRESIDENT

IT was quite the proper thing for the Republican convention to choose Charles Warren Fairbanks for Vice-Presidential candidate on the ticket with Justice Hughes. His State of Indiana is the home of Vice-Presidents, and is, besides, by common consent, carried in the doubtful column until Election Day, with the popularity of a native-son candidate likely to turn the scale and carry the State for his party. As for Mr. Fairbanks himself, not only is he eminently qualified to preside over the Senate, but, as Indiana's candidate for the Presidency itself, he is, in the opinion of many, fully able to administer properly the duties of that higher office to which the Vice-President is so often called.

Born in an Ohio log cabin, sixty-four years ago, Charles Warren Fairbanks grew up as a farmer boy. His parents, however, were sufficiently prosperous to send him to college, and at the age of twenty he graduated from Ohio Wesleyan University.

He immediately took up the study of law and was admitted to the Ohio bar in 1874. That same year he moved to Indianapolis, where he practised law without interruption for twenty-three years. Mr. Fairbanks, the lawyer, was eminently successful, and became one of the leading attorneys of Indiana. Fortune as well as fame were the fruits of those years.

It is not unusual for successful lawyers to become interested in politics and thereafter to be sought as advisers. Thus Mr. Fairbanks attended first State and then national conventions, and was invariably se-

lected for important chairmanships. National prominence came in 1896, when as a result of vigorous denunciation of the "free silver" proposals, he was made temporary chairman of the convention that nominated William McKinley.

In the following year (1897) the Indiana legislature sent Mr. Fairbanks to the United States Senate, reëlecting him in 1903. The

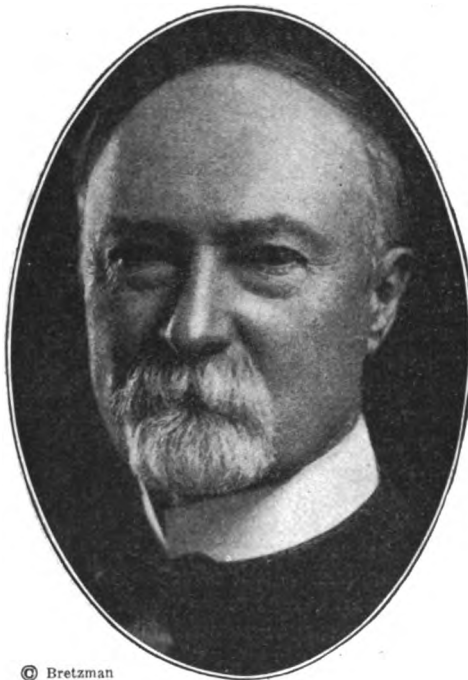
new Senator became the recognized spokesman, in his branch of Congress, for President McKinley in the critical period of the war with Spain.

In 1904 came the nomination for the Vice-Presidency, on the ticket with Theodore Roosevelt, and during the succeeding four years Mr. Fairbanks fulfilled the duties of his office with credit and distinction.

When the split in the Republican party came, four years ago, Mr. Fairbanks was chairman of the platform committee in the convention which re-nominated President Taft; and during the campaign he supported the Republican ticket.

It is declared, however, that he did not antagonize the Progressives, and that in the event of union he will be acceptable to them.

Mr. Fairbanks is a man of polished and dignified appearance, tall and slender, with an ability to make and keep friends. He has unassailable records on currency, tariff, and labor matters, and is known as a student of international law. As yet, he has not been prominent in the discussion of national defense, but his spokesman in the convention declared that he stands for "preparedness against war and preparedness for peace."



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CHARLES WARREN FAIRBANKS

THE NEW PRESIDENT OF CHINA

BY HOLLINGTON K. TONG

THE political atmosphere in China has been clarified. The succession of Vice-President Li Yuan-hung to the Presidency on June 7, upon the death of Yuan Shih-kai, has united the discordant elements and restored peace and order. Like his predecessor in 1912, who loomed up large after the establishment of the Republic, following the overthrow of the Manchu régime, President Li to-day stands out prominently in the Orient as the man of the hour.

The new President of China is able to harmonize the conservatives and radicals and command their support. This opinion I do not hesitate to give after having observed his official career and personal conduct at close range for the last three years; often heard him discourse on the improvement of household affairs, the reform of government, and the development of patriotism; read many of his instructive telegrams to the late President in Peking, while residing at Wu-chang, as Vice-President of the Republic and Governor of Hupeh. In those confidential telegrams, General Li propounded great principles, enforced moral issues, or gave timely warnings.

In undertaking the difficult task of uniting the conservatives and radicals, the new President will have willing assistance from men of various talents and abilities desirous of forming a strong government and placing their country in the front rank along with Western Powers. Already, Premier Tuan Chi-jui, a recognized leader of the military party, has assured him of his whole-hearted support. Likewise, men like Tang Shao-yi, Wu Ting-feng, and Tsai Ao have wired to him congratulations which mean the offer of their assistance. The coöperation of the new President and the Premier, and the promise of assistance from popular leaders, have dispelled the dark cloud of prolonged civil war which has overshadowed the young Republic of China for the last five months.

His personality and early training will enable the new President to work in harmony with various leaders of the land. A man of wide outlook, General Li is full of sympathy with the legitimate aspirations of democracy. Born in 1864, he is a native of Hupeh, possessing the true characteristics of his fellow provincials—great tenacity of purpose, unexampled bravery, and aptitude for military achievements. Having naturally chosen the military as his profession, coming as he did from such a martial province, young



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LI YUAN-HUNG, THE NEW PRESIDENT OF CHINA

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Li Yuan-hung entered the famous Peiyang Naval College, and, after a course of six years, graduated with honor. He was soon assigned to a cruiser as a non-commissioned officer.

During the Chino-Japanese war, he fought bravely by the side of Admiral Ting Shih-chang, the Nelson of China. After the war, he attracted the attention of Viceroy Chang Chih-tung, to whose Yamen at Nanking he was subsequently transferred for the task of training troops. When his protégé was appointed Viceroy of Hunan and Hupeh, with his headquarters at Wuchang, General Li accompanied him thither to assist in the organization of the modern army.

Later he went to Japan to study fortifications at the suggestion of his chief, who, though a distinguished scholar of the Confucian school, was favorably disposed towards new learnings. On his return, he was appointed a major of cavalry, and was promoted to the rank of Colonel while serving in the 21st Brigade. He was Field Marshal of the Changteh maneuvers in 1905, which he organized and conducted with great success. For the following five years he served on the Army General Staff at Wuchang, where he was exceedingly popular with his fellow officers on account of his straightforwardness and sincerity.

MILITARY LEADER OF THE REVOLUTION

The revolutionary outbreak in 1911 brought him forward as the supreme military commander of the revolutionary forces. In that capacity he negotiated with Yuan Shih-kai, who had just been recalled to office and power in the great emergency in which the Manchu government found itself. In a perfectly friendly way these two great men conferred, but their negotiations came to nothing. The war was resumed, resulting in their being pitted against each other for a time. Neither defeated the other, and their colleagues settled their destinies at the peace conference. When the settlement came, Yuan Shih-kai became President of the Republic, and Li Yuan-hung became Vice-President and chief of the General Staff.

For ten months Yuan Shih-kai and Li Yuan-hung, as President and Vice-President of China, respectively, carried on their state functions at two different places. After the conditions in the middle and southern provinces had been settled, Vice-President Li, at the invitation of Yuan Shih-kai, came to Peking, where he was engaged in the less spectacular side of the administration. In

1915, however, he was made Chairman of the State Council, which was advisory in nature, and sometimes acted as parliament, in the absence of the two houses of the Legislature. When the movement to make Yuan Shih-kai Emperor was started, last December, President Li resigned his chairmanship, evidently as an expression of his disapproval of the movement. For his staunch support to the Republic, the four seceding provinces elected him their President, but the presidential duties were actually transferred to him by a mandate issued by Yuan Shih-kai when he was breathing his last. This departing act of the late President clearly shows that the Constitution and the law do mean something in China.

YUAN'S REMARKABLE CAREER

The new President is a great admirer of his late chief, Yuan Shih-kai, whose executive ability and administrative experience he unreservedly praised. Nothing, therefore, could be more natural than that, on his assumption of the presidential duties, he should have issued a mandate paying a great tribute to his predecessor, and reviewing in brief his career as a veteran statesman of China. Born in Honan in 1859, five years older than the new President, Yuan Shih-kai came from an official family of high standing. In 1882 he went to Korea with a Chinese detachment, first as secretary and then as Chinese Imperial Resident, remaining there for twelve years.

His later official career was equally brilliant. In two years Yuan Shih-kai, the late President of China, was promoted from the post of judicial commissioner to the Governorship of Shantung. The winter of 1901 found him securely seated on the chair of Viceroy of Chihli, vacated by Li Hung-chang. He took a prominent part in the formation of China's modern army, which won for him a good reputation abroad. Among the other posts which he afterwards held were president of the Board of Foreign Affairs, Grand Councillor and Senior Guardian of the Heir Apparent. In 1909 he resigned, but on the revolutionary outbreak, two years later, he was recalled to power. The outbreak resulted in the establishment of the Republic with Yuan Shih-kai as the President. In the course of his eulogistic mandate as the new President, Li Yuan-hung said that Yuan Shih-kai had accomplished much in the maintenance of order, the encouragement of national industries, and the readjustment of relations be-

tween Peking and the provinces, and that his death was a great loss to China.

Some American friends of China, familiar with Oriental politics, have expressed to me their wish that the new government under President Li, who has so heroically taken up the difficult task left behind by the once great Viceroy of Chihli, who saved thousands of foreign lives during the Boxer rising by his refusal to obey the imperial order, should be free from molestation by Japan, the neighboring country. The Mikado's government, however, seems to have already started a campaign of discrediting the new administration of China, in spite of Japan's public declaration to the contrary. Two recent press cablegrams from Tokio, and via Lon-



THE LATE YUAN SHI-KAI, THE FORMER PRESIDENT



Photo by Bain News Service.

TUAN CHI-JUI, PREMIER AND MINISTER OF WAR

don, reporting the sending of American troops from Tientsin to Peking, and the dispatch of two thousand Japanese troops to Tientsin and Peking, have created in this country an impression that the situation in China was very bad. The wrong impression would not have been made had it been, in the interest of truth, briefly explained in the messages that the dispatch of foreign troops to Peking and Tientsin was merely the yearly routine of changing legation guards. It is hoped that the news service under the control of the Japanese Government will not further discredit the new Chinese Government.

All that the Chinese people ask of the world is fair dealing and that they be allowed to work out their own salvation under the direction of the new President, assisted by the progressive leaders now rallying around him. If China be let alone, President Li can steer the ship of state out of the danger zone, and the new government will be able to inaugurate an era of prosperity and industrial development in a short time.





⑤ American Press Association, New York

RUMANIAN INFANTRY ON THE MARCH

(These pictures of Rumanian soldiery derive timeliness from the fact that the Russian advance into Bukowina was considered as having an influence on Rumania's possible entrance into the war.)



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RUMANIAN LANCERS

RUSSIA COMES BACK—A GREAT SLAV VICTORY

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS

I. THE FIRST BLOW

NOT since the Russians were defeated on the Dunajec has there been so great a victory won by either side as that which crowned Russian arms in the past month. Even now, after two weeks of fighting, it is still impossible to set a limit to the Russian triumph or decide whether or not the defeat of the Austrians will have consequences approaching those of the earlier Austrian defeat at Lemberg or the later Russian disaster at Dunajec.

When this comment is written, June 20, it is possible to see that the Russian advance has gone far enough to imperil the whole front of the Central Powers from the Baltic at the Gulf of Riga to the Rumanian frontier. It is possible to declare that Russia has already advanced some forty miles at some points and from twenty to thirty in many; that her advance is now approaching Kovel on the north, Brody in the center, and has overpassed Czernowitz at the south and at least temporarily broken the connection between the Bukovina army and the other Austrian forces.

Could the Russian advance be pressed for another week at the present rate, which is altogether unlikely, Kovel would fall, Lemberg would be in danger, and the Russian front would approach the Carpathians south of the Dniester. So far as one can judge by the outward evidences, such an advance would compel the Germans to retire behind the Niemen and the Bug, resign their Courland and Volhynian conquests, and stand on the eastern frontier of Russian Poland, thus giving up about half of the territory conquered in the great campaign of last summer. Such a retreat would not involve the surrender of any German territory; it would leave above 50,000 square miles of Russian lands to the Kaiser; but it would yield some 25,000 square miles of Austrian territory in Galicia and Bukovina to the Czar.

In the past ten days nearly 175,000 Austrians have been captured by the Russians,

together with an enormous booty of supplies, munitions, and artillery. As the Austrian killed and wounded cannot be less than 125,000, the blow has already cost the Hapsburg states 300,000. Add to this figure 100,000 Austrians killed, wounded, and captured—very few captured—in the Italian drive that began a month ago, and the total Austrian loss for recent weeks is at least 400,000, nearly three-quarters certainly a permanent loss. Here is a measure of the Russian blow and the Austrian disaster that is easily to be grasped, for we have at all times recognized that men, rather than positions or towns, were the real element in this war of attrition.

II. THE MORAL EFFECT

Before turning to examine the military details of this absorbingly interesting Russian offensive, I wish just for a moment to call attention to the moral effect. Ever since February 21—that is, for four months—the Germans have been pounding at Verdun. In this time they have advanced about six miles on a front of perhaps fifteen. They have nowhere pierced the French line, and there is no longer any chance of piercing it. This achievement now stands against the Russian success as the Teutonic total for the first half of the year 1916, for the Austrian attack upon Italy, already abandoned, has made no considerable progress.

Now, just one year ago the Germans and their allies attacked the Russians with the purpose to put them out of the war. They won stupendous successes, but failed to eliminate Russia as a military force, because Russian armies, despite terrific losses, escaped capture. At the close of the campaign the German press and public men told the German people that Russia had been so crushed that her recovery would be a matter of years. Peace was to be had after a brief campaign in the Balkans had opened the road to Egypt and brought Britain to her knees.

The destruction of Serbia did not open the

road to Egypt, and the Russian attack from the Caucasus in the winter put an end to all hope of a Turkish attack upon Suez. Even the British disaster at Kut did not affect the situation, for the fall of Erzerum and Trebizond had already imperiled the whole Turkish Empire and lost the larger half of Armenia. The wreck of the Turkish armies had to be reorganized and these were compelled to stand on the defensive on the frontiers of Anatolia and in Mesopotamia.

With the close of winter came the Verdun drive, with its promise of a prompt and complete victory which would dispose of France and bring peace (note that every German campaign since last summer's has significantly been press-agented in Germany as the fore-runner of peace). But, while Verdun remains untaken, Russia suddenly steps out and wins the greatest Allied victory since Lemberg and, save for Lemberg, the only great offensive success on the Allied side. To the German people this means but one thing: it means that Russia is not destroyed, and, since she is not, more German armies will have to be sent to save Austria. We are then back at something like the position of September, 1914, so far as the eastern campaign is concerned.

Suppose that Russia can again be beaten by another tremendous German campaign: will this eliminate a nation whose man-power is almost inexhaustible, whose allies are able and apparently prepared to supply money and munitions?

III. THE LARGER VIEW

Let us now glance for a moment at the larger aspect of the Russian operation. We know that with the coming of winter and the end of all chance of operations in the East for many months, Germany drew a large portion of her troops from the eastern front; she drew both from her own lines north of the Pripet marshes and from the Austrian lines to the south, where her troops had been supplying stiffening for the Hapsburg armies.

These troops were not immediately sent in at Verdun. On the contrary, they were concentrated in front of the British lines between the Somme and the sea, with the obvious expectation that an attack upon Verdun would force the British into a premature offensive, while the Russians were still unable to move because of weather conditions. Such an offensive the Germans could expect to repulse, and then the hope of the Allies

to turn the Germans out of France might be postponed for a year and the bloody repulse might help toward peace.

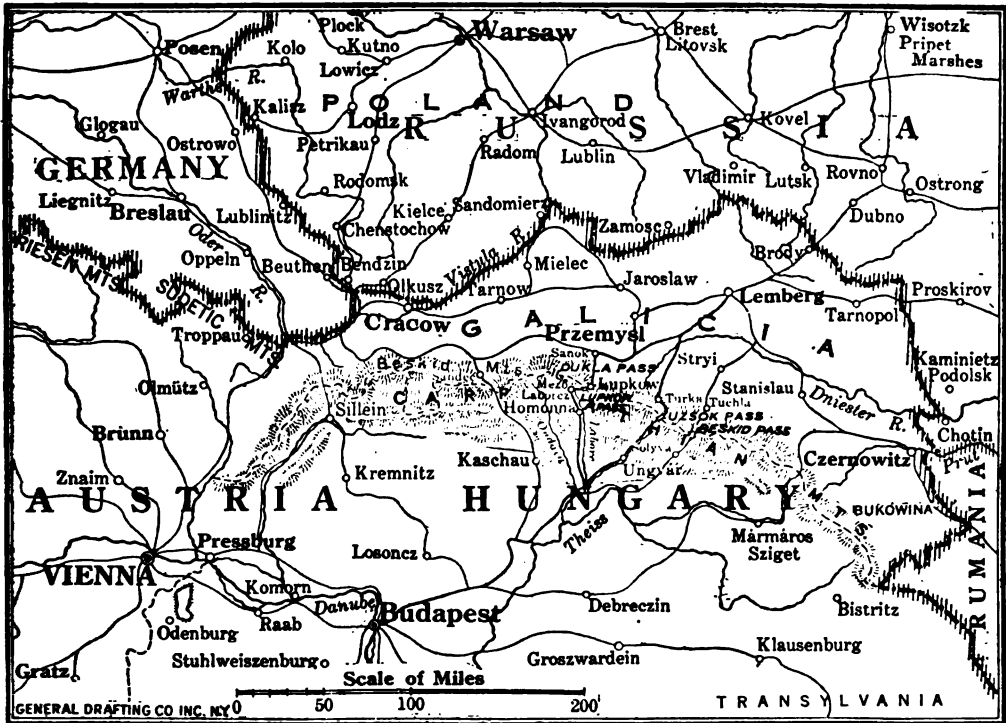
But the British did not stir. They took over a portion of the French lines, the Arras sector, and stood fast. The attack upon Verdun led to nothing but casualties. Some time in March the Germans were compelled to draw down from the front of the British a fraction of the troops that they had sent there from the eastern front. We do not know the number, we do not even know if the number was considerable; but some divisions have been recognized before Verdun which had been before the British when the Verdun attack began.

The Germans continued their attack upon Verdun because they seem to have been satisfied that France was tired of the war and would weary of bearing so much of the burden of the conflict herself. Meantime an attack upon Italy was also launched by the Austrians, apparently with some eye to the political conditions in the Italian Kingdom, and in the hope of winning a victory sufficiently large to bring Italy to a separate peace.

To get the men for this Italian attack, Austria had to borrow from the eastern front. Patently she took a considerable number from the lines between the Pripet marshes and Rumania, relying upon the enormous strength of the fortifications that had been constructed, and apparently too completely accepting the assertion made in Germany that Russia was still helpless.

This gave the Russians their chance and they took it with a suddenness that surprised the world. We have always known that there was an irreducible minimum of safety in the matter of the number of men required to hold a trench line. Lee before Richmond described his final disaster as due to the fact that his line had been stretched so thin it broke. He meant that the extension of the Union line to the West had compelled the Confederates to keep pace and they lacked the numbers to do it. At last their whole line was held by so few effectives that it was broken in several places at once.

When Russia struck, she had before her a number of Austrians too small to hold the line, which was nearly two hundred miles long. This Austrian host has been estimated at 600,000; the Russian force has been set as high as 2,000,000, a figure which seems to me excessive. But what is essential to recognize is that for the first time we see the thing that the Allies have all along fore-



SCENE OF THE GREAT RUSSIAN OFFENSIVE (SEE NEXT PAGE)

(The battle front last month extended from the Pripet Marshes, east of Brest-Litovsk, south to Czernowitz, on the Rumanian frontier)

cast, namely, a lack of men on the Austro-German side adequate to hold the extent of lines that they now occupied. To take Verdun and to break into Venetia the Austrians and Germans had weakened their eastern lines beyond the safety point. The result was the first disaster to the Central Powers since the Lemberg time, but a disaster that came at an unhappy moment, for the Germans were telling the world the war was won, their lines were irrefragible, and that peace was only prevented by the obstinacy of the defeated.

IV. HOW IT BEGAN

Up to the present time the various efforts of the contending armies to pierce the trench lines of the foe have been confined to narrow fronts. The Dunajec movement, which succeeded, was made on a front of less than twenty miles, that is, the decisive thrust. The French attack in Champagne, which failed, was made on a front of less than twenty, the British blow at Loos was on a front of barely ten miles, the German attack upon Verdun was made upon a front equally restricted, although the attacks upon the west

bank of the Meuse have increased the total operative front to perhaps fifteen.

The Russians, on the contrary, seem to have attacked at many points along a front of upwards of 150 miles. The total distance from the Rumanian frontier to Pripet Marshes is less than 200. Outnumbering the Austrians by perhaps three to one, having accumulated a vast store of ammunition and of heavy artillery, they suddenly broke into flame and assault at innumerable points on this vast extent of trench line.

What followed was a reproduction on an enormous scale of what occurred in Champagne last September. There the French succeeded in breaking the German lines at some points; at one point they got clear through, but at other points the Germans held on to their first or second line. As a result the French advance was held up by the flank fire of the positions which held out until German reserves arrived.

On the eastern front the Russians were similarly halted at various points. But the movement was on such a vast scale that at the places where they broke through they broke through on a front of many miles. Such gaps could not be covered by the fire of the

portions of the line which remained intact; therefore there was a general retreat along perhaps two-thirds of the whole Austrian front, that is, on the whole northern and the whole southern flanks. Only the center held and is still holding west of Tarnopol.

The great break in the Austrian lines was made in the north between the Styr River at Kolki and the Austrian frontier due north of Tarnopol. Here the Russians had before them two fortresses, belonging to the famous Volhynian triangle of Lutsk, Rowno and Dubno. Rowno the Russians had retained; Lutsk and Dubno fell, the first by assault, the second as a result of flanking operations in the first days of the general attack.

With the fall of these fortresses the Russians opened a wide breach in the Austrian lines through which they poured their great numbers. Their immediate objectives were Kovel to the northwest, at the intersection of the railroads from Lublin and from Brest-Litovsk. These are vital to the Austro-Germans, since if they are lost, if Kovel is captured and held, the whole German position from the Gulf of Riga to the Pripet Marshes is outflanked and must be abandoned.

At the moment this review is written the Russians, still unchecked, have advanced nearly forty miles on the road to Kovel and have passed the Stachod River, less than thirty miles from Kovel. They seem to be moving on a broad front and to have reached Lokacz, twenty miles to the south and about the same distance from the important town of Vladmir Wolynski, at which point the Austrians, now heavily reinforced by the Germans, are reported to be preparing to make a stand.

Meantime there has been another gigantic Russian thrust southwest from Dubno along the Lemberg railroad, which has reached the Austrian frontier just east of Brody, that is, sixty miles northeast of the great city of Lemberg. So far as it is possible to interpret the official statements by use of the map the Russians have succeeded in cutting clean through the whole Austro-German front for a space of some forty miles from north to south and have pushed northwest, west, and southwest for almost an equal distance. Still unchecked they are going forward along the Rowno-Kovel and the Rowno-Lemberg railroads.

To the south, that is, in the center, the advance has been far less successful. Starting just west of Tarnopol, it has passed the Sereth Valley and reached the Strypa, some ten miles to the west, following two rail-

roads which connect Tarnopol with Lemberg. But at this point the advance seems to have been checked and the Austrians are holding on to positions along the west bank of the Strypa, which flows from north to south parallel to the Sereth.

But this Austrian stand seems imperilled by a successful crossing of the Strypa a few miles to the south at Buczac; here the Russians are advancing and claim to have reached the Zlota Lipa River, which also flows from north to south, parallels the Strypa and is at least ten miles west of it. If the Russian claims prove accurate then the Austrian center will have to retire behind the Zlota Lipa to escape envelopment.

Finally, still further to the south the Russians have cut the railroad between Czernowitz and Stanislau at Sniatyn, have defeated the Austrian army defending Czernowitz and have just officially announced that they have occupied this capital city of Bukovina. The Austrian army that is defending Bukovina is now without rail connection with the other Austrian armies and is thus isolated.

V. ON THE MAP

Perhaps the best way to illustrate the situation is to have recourse to the map. When the Russians began the Austrian line ran approximately straight from Pripet Marshes to Rumania. Now the line is shown first by a huge curve, the convex side toward Austria. The radius of the curve would be some thirty miles. This curve represents the great Russian wedge, which is still progressively eating into the Austrian lines toward Kovel and toward Lemberg.

From Tarnopol another narrower curve must be drawn, passing through Buczac, crossing the Dniester near Niewiska, passing west of Horodenka, and reaching the Pruth west of Czernowitz and then sweeping round to the Rumanian boundary.

In other words, the Russians are advancing in a wide circle both in the north and in the south; in the north they have progressed not less than forty miles, in the south almost thirty. The Russian center has so far not made much progress, but the advance of the flanks now threatens the Austrian center, which must presently retreat to avoid envelopment, unless the tide is turned promptly by a victorious counter-offensive in the north and from Kovel.

Roughly speaking, the situation now almost exactly recalls the situation in the last days of August, 1914, when the great Rus-

sian advance on Lemberg began. Two Russian armies were then moving on Lemberg, one commanded by Russky coming southwest from Dubno, the other commanded by the same Brusiloff, who now commands all the Russian armies in this district, moving on both sides of the Dniester.

Thus threatened on both flanks the Austrian army fell back until it stood a few miles east of Lemberg and perhaps fifty miles from its present position. Here it fought a great battle, was routed, and fled in disorder westward to the San, losing 300,000 in prisoners and an enormous booty of munitions and guns. This proved to be the greatest military disaster of the war and resulted in the advance of the Russians to the Carpathians and the Dunajec and the conquest of all of Galicia save the Cracow district.

Can the Russians repeat the success of the early days of the war? It is too early to say. But it is plain that unless their two great thrusts, that to the north from Lutsk and Dubno and that to the south along the Dniester, are checked within a few days, the Austrians will be flung back upon Lemberg and will either have to evacuate this city and all of eastern Galicia or fight upon the field which saw their former terrible defeat.

If the Russians can advance to Lemberg, then the retirement of the Austro-German armies from the Carpathians to the Gulf of Riga is inevitable, for in Galicia the Russians would be at least a hundred miles west of the present German front from Pinsk to the outskirts of Riga. Recall that the German success at the Dunajec involved the retreat of all the Russian armies in the Carpathians and in Poland, that this retirement, after the first disaster, was made in orderly fashion and was successful as a retreat, but that it was impossible for the Russians to stand again, on their whole front, until they had reconcentrated their armies behind the Dwina and the Pripet Marshes, where they were when the present movement began.

It would be foolish to attempt to forecast at the moment when the Russian offensive is entering into the second phase, which must determine its real value. The first phase was comprehended in the breaking of the whole Austro-German front in many places, on a very wide front at two points, and an advance unequalled since the German triumphs of last summer. We can see that Russia may be able to turn the tables and take her revenge at the present time. But it is equally possible that the Germans may send sufficient reinforcements to check the

Russians at the Zlota Lipa—or the Gnila Lipa a few miles to the westward—and hold the line from the Dniester through Sokal, Vladimir Wolynski and Kovel to Pinsk.

In such a case the deadlock in the East will be restored and Russia will have succeeded in winning a tremendous local victory, in reconquering as much of her own and Austrian territory as the Germans hold in France, in taking a huge total of prisoners and of guns and munitions, but she will have failed to compel the Germans to make a great retirement, which would have enormous political effect in Germany and moral effect elsewhere. All one can say now is that Russia has laid a foundation on which the greatest possible edifice of victory might be raised, but there is, as yet, no reason for forecasting such a victory.

VI. IN FRANCE AND ITALY

The effect of the Russian attack upon the Austrian offensive in the Tyrol has already been reported. Practically this operation has ceased and the Italians report certain Austrian retirements and several local successes in retaking lost positions. It seems certain that many thousand Austrian troops have been despatched from the Tyrol to Galicia and it is reported that Austrian troops in Albania are hurrying back.

On the contrary there is, as yet, no pause in the Verdun attack. But, unless the Russians are promptly checked, it is easy to foresee that Germany must either draw troops from the army she has massed before Verdun or else still further weaken her forces along the British line. As the forces before Verdun have never been large; that is, have probably never exceeded 300,000 at any one time, although this number of Germans has probably been killed, wounded, and captured since the battle began, it seems safe to conjecture that drafts will have to be made upon the armies holding the line from Verdun to the sea.

But such a weakening of these armies could but have one consequence. Unquestionably there would be a British attack, just as there was a Russian attack, when the troops along the eastern front had been drawn upon to strengthen the armies in the West. Quite in the same way any excessive draft upon the Austrians facing the Italians would lead to a prompt offensive along the Isonzo. Again, the recall of Austro-German troops from the Balkans would be the signal for attack upon the Bulgarians by the

large Austro-French-Serb army now before Salonica.

Roughly, then, we begin to grasp the strategy of the Allies. They have prepared for a great offensive, but they have also combined their operations in such fashion as to attack on the front where the enemy is weakest and to attack only when the weakness has become so apparent as to hold out the promise of a success of the first magnitude.

The fundamental idea of the Allies is that the Austro-Germans are now holding a line out of proportion to the men they have left to defend it. They believe that the Germans are resolved to hold this line, rather than to shorten it by retiring, because such a retirement would be a confession of weakness which would have a great effect upon neutrals like Rumania and Greece and allies like Bulgaria and Turkey, who have no intention of staying with the loser.

This theory may be right or wrong. We shall see it worked out before winter and there is no need of prophesying. But if the Allies are right in their reasoning the Germans are now in the position of Napoleon in his last campaign in Germany in 1813, when he let the statesman overbear the soldier and held on to territory for political effect with troops, which, had they been concentrated might have won the war and saved his empire.

The mission of France in the last few months may be compared to that of Masséna in the Marengo campaign. He defended himself in Genoa until Napoleon had crossed the Alps, and the great victory had been prepared. Genoa fell as it is conceivable that Verdun may fall, but the victory of Marengo regained Genoa and much beside. It will not be for France but for Britain to bear the burden of the offensive in the West and there have been many signs recently, notably the forecast of Bonar Law, that the British are at last about ready to step forward when the appropriate moment comes.

That moment will come if the Germans have to weaken their western lines to help their Austrian ally, as they had to weaken their lines in 1914 after the Austrian disasters had brought the Hapsburg Empire within two steps of ruin. But in 1914 Germany could turn East with a light heart because she had no considerable British army to face her and France was at the limit of her immediate strength as a consequence of her heroic efforts at the Marne. Now France is in better shape than she was in November, 1914, and Great Britain has a million and a

half of troops immediately available, most of them in France. She has guns and munitions; only her generalship remains problematical.

VII. TOWARD A DECISION

With this number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* there will close the second year of the world war. Unless all signs fail we are now entering upon the decisive phase and I believe that the successful Russian campaign in Galicia may easily prove to be the first circumstance in the fighting which will decide the outcome. It is a fact that all observers recognize that the Allies have made tremendous preparations for the summer campaign. There are still those who insist that the attack upon Germany will be postponed until next spring; Colonel Feyler, the most celebrated of neutral commentators, writes in his Geneva paper that he heard such talk on a recent visit to the French front, but he adds significantly that he does not credit it.

Since the Germans began their attack upon Verdun last February they have lost at least 350,000 men there and elsewhere; the Austrians have lost 400,000 in the last month. Here are 750,000 troops either permanently or temporarily out of the fighting line of the Central Powers. France in the same time may have lost 200,000, Britain 100,000, Italy 150,000, Russia 200,000, but these losses are divided among four great powers instead of two. Henceforth Britain must and will take off an increasing share of France's casualty burden. Britain, Russia, and Italy are still far from having their last men in line; Russia will not come to such a pass.

The element of attrition has been greatly overemphasized by all who have written about the war and I own frankly to my own error, but I am convinced that as to France, Germany, and Austria, particularly the last, the casualty lists have become a serious question and another six months of fighting at the rate of the early months would exhaust their resources in reserves. Conceivably this is now the case with all three; I believe it is true of Austria.

The fact that Russia, with inexhaustible supplies of men, is able to take the offensive this year with armies that again demonstrate their superiority over the Austrian is then of great significance. It means that Russia can do what she promised to do, what all German writers have feared she would do.



Photograph by Press Illustrating Co.

AUSTRIAN-ITALIAN FRONT

(Austrian telephone central, installed in the rocks of the high mountains near Goritz)

It means that after all the range of perils, the Teuton must return to his original fear of the Slav. His soldiers are perishing by the hundred thousand in the battle with the British and the French, but his greatest foe for the future, the Slav, is on his flank again and the future lies dark ahead, if a crippled Germany must after this war, even if it ends in a deadlock, turn East to face the ancient foe, whose population grows by the millions and whose land is almost without limit.

Germany attacked France last winter as she did in August, 1914, in the hope of disposing of her before the allies of the French were ready. France held at Verdun as she did at the Marne and now Russia has partially repeated her amazing successes of 1914. But two years have passed and at least 4,000,000 Germans have been killed, wounded, captured, or removed from the firing-line. The second attack upon France has failed. Must there be a second attack upon Russia, since the first has plainly failed? What will Britain do if this attack is made and what can Italy accomplish, if the Austrian armies are compelled to turn East?

Every sign that one can see points toward the coming of a decision in this war before snow flies. So far it is a draw, but if the Germans were turned out of France, if the Russians came back through Galicia, then there would be no draw, for Germany has lost the use of the sea and all her colonies

and seaborne commerce. Such defeat, limited though it would be, would certainly affect the Turk and the Bulgar and if the Bulgar should change sides, if the Allied army at Salonica should reach the Danube, then the last possible profit to Germany in the war, the expansion to the East, would be disposed of.

On the other hand, if Germany can throw back the Slav and the Briton, if she can dispose of the British offensive and restore Austrian fortunes in Galicia, there may be talk of peace, with the war unwon this autumn. Europe will hardly go through another summer of war unless one side or the other sees the promise of the realization of the victory for which it has sacrificed so much. The Allies will not move hastily, nor in advance of the hour that they have fixed. They never had the smallest intention of striking this spring, despite the German assertions to the contrary, because they have prepared their maximum blow. If it fails, they will hardly be able to prepare another equally powerful and we may see this war end as did the last wars of Louis XIV in a peace restoring *status quo ante*, instead of the Napoleonic débâcle.

The fall of Czernowitz necessarily reopens the question of Rumania. The Bucharest Government means to come into the war on the Allied side just in time to get Bukowina and Transylvania. They almost

came in in the spring of 1915 before the great Russian disaster. Conceivably, if the Austrian defeat continues to grow, they will come now. Certainly they will not unless the sure profit exceeds the possible loss. Rumania is a weather-vane worth watching because it may tell the wind—particularly worth watching just now.

VIII. VERDUN

The naval battle in the North Sea, spectacular as it was, and doubtless the greatest sea fight of modern times, left the two seapowers where they stood before it. It was a victory for the British or the Germans as you choose to believe British or German statements. The latter, to be sure, were badly shaken by the German confession that they had falsified their report at the outset. A decisive victory for the German press agent there was, because he got his report in first and the British report was one more testimonial to the utter failure of the British to understand the handling of anything that might give them prestige in neutral countries.

Thanks to the fashion in which the British reported their fight, the great majority of Americans believe that the British fleet met with a great disaster and the Germans won a remarkable victory. Nothing that could be said now would change this; but, of course, the fact is that the battle was without importance in the decisive sense and that there is a fair chance that the British came off a shade the better, regard being had for the comparative tonnage of the two navies. Certainly the German boast that the British no longer control the sea is empty.

At Verdun the Germans have made real progress, but only slight progress withal. When I was in Verdun in April the French still held the summits of Mort Homme and Hill 304, now they have been forced down the southern slopes of both and along the river the Germans have passed Cumières. All told on the west bank they may have advanced half a mile in ten weeks, but they are still far away from the last and best line of French defense on the Charny ridge.

East of the Meuse the Germans have taken Vaux, the fort to the east of Douaumont and about the same distance from Verdun. The capture came after long weeks of desperate fighting. It marks the most material gain the Germans have made since the early days of March and it brings them a step nearer to the final line of French defenses on the east bank of the river. But

the French still hold on just west of Vaux as they have in front of Douaumont.

In nearly four months the Germans have gained less than a hundred square miles of French territory, a little more than the gain of the French and British last September. They have taken about 40,000 prisoners, slightly more than the French and British took in Champagne and Artois. The total French loss is certainly 150,000, it may be 200,000. The German loss has passed 300,000. Compare this with 175,000 prisoners and 3000 square miles captured by the Russians last week and there is apparent the difference between a victory and a defeat. Finally the Germans have not advanced over six miles anywhere and the Russians have covered more than forty.

There have been many explanations of the German persistence. For myself I think that there have been different reasons at different moments. First there was the hope that the British would be drawn into a premature offensive, then the dream of taking Verdun and winning a great moral victory, then the belief that France would be exhausted by the strain or that her people would become dissatisfied. But since none of these things has happened why do the Germans still continue to sacrifice men?

Conceivably the Germans already see the possibility that they will have to shorten their lines in the West. In this case the line of the Meuse from St. Mihiel to Namur is the natural defensive position, a position of very great strength. But until the French are driven back from the hills of the Meuse west of the river, the position could not be held with ease, since the French would hold an immense bridgehead from Verdun to St. Mihiel.

This may be a wholly absurd conjecture, but it is the only one that answers the present situation. Verdun is an utterly worthless mass of ruins, the French lines behind it would be stronger than the present line and the French people are now fully informed as to the situation and would not be gravely affected by the fall of the town. This was not true in February or March. The Russians have already asserted that they will relieve Verdun in Volhynia, but this remains to be proven; meanwhile the defense of Verdun approaches its fourth month and the attention of the world has turned from Lorraine to Galicia and from German to Russian operations. Bethmann-Hollweg's map of Europe has already undergone amendment and the end is not yet in sight.

KITCHENER OF KHARTOUM

BY CHARLES JOHNSTON

KITCHENER will be remembered for four great constructive works of organization, carried out in Egypt, South Africa, India, and England. In each case his work was creative and revolutionary in conception, and carried out with the utmost precision in every least detail. No man touched the world-extended British Empire at more points, or touched it with such decisive, fateful effect. It may be said, indeed, that the integrity of the Empire, in the twentieth century, is the work of Kitchener. Four dangers arose, in regions separated by vast continental spaces; in each region, Kitchener met the danger, piercingly diagnosed the cause, patiently and courageously overcame it. Every honor within the power of his countrymen to give him was offered to Kitchener; yet all honors fall short of his immense attainment.

Born in Ireland, at Crotter House, near Ballylongford, in Kerry, on the south shore of the Shannon estuary, Horatio Herbert Kitchener was the son of an English father, Lieutenant-Colonel H. Kitchener, of an old Leicestershire family, and an English mother, Frances Chevallier, whose father's home, Aspall Hall, Suffolk, later came into Lord Kitchener's possession, and is the source of one of his minor titles. Kitchener was Earl of Khartoum and Broome (in Kent), and Viscount of the Vaal and Aspall. H. H. Kitchener was in France in the summer of 1870; he immediately volunteered for service in the French army, and fought through the Franco-Prussian war; so that he was a companion in arms of Joffre, Gallieni, and Pau, the three most prominent soldiers of France at the beginning of the world war.

Kitchener entered the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich, the West Point of Britain, where her engineer officers are trained, and came out with a thorough knowledge of engineering, and, as it happened, with a practical knowledge of surveying and photography also. These two last acquirements made him eligible for the Palestine Survey, with which he worked from 1874 to 1878, at the time when Joffre was working at the military defenses of Paris and serving in French garrison towns. From Palestine Kitchener went to the island of



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A RECENT PORTRAIT OF LORD KITCHENER

Cyprus, which had just been added to the British Empire, as the payment for Beaconsfield's intervention to save Constantinople from the Russian armies led by the elder Grand Duke Nicholas, the father of the present Grand Duke. As in Palestine, he

completed four years' survey work, gaining, among other things, in these semi-Oriental regions, a thorough knowledge of colloquial Arabic; for Kitchener, like Sir William Robertson, his chief aid at the War Office, was a remarkable linguist. It was said of him that he could keep silent in ten languages.

Beaconsfield's pro-Turkish policy drew England closer to Turkey's great Viceroyalty, Egypt; and, because of his knowledge of the colloquial tongue of the Egyptian people, a modern dialect of Arabic, Kitchener naturally gravitated into the Egyptian service, in which many Englishmen, like Sir Samuel Baker, were doing fine constructive work. From 1882 to 1884, immediately after leaving Cyprus, Kitchener was in command of Egyptian cavalry, and took part in the Nile Expedition of 1884-5, which brought him brevet rank of Lieutenant-Colonel, the Order of the Medjidie of the Second Class, and the Khedive's Star. Half-way down the Red Sea, over against the sacred city of Mecca, is Suakim, the southern outpost of Egypt, and now the eastern terminus of a railroad connecting the Red Sea with the Nile. Suakim is one of the hottest stations on earth and one of the most desolate, comparable to central Arizona in the hot season. Here Kitchener served as Governor, from 1886 to 1888, with distinction; the following year, 1889, saw him fighting on the frontier of the Sudan, the wild, vast back-country to the south and west of Egypt. Then, from 1889 to 1892, he served as Adjutant-General of the Egyptian army, nominally as an officer of the Sultan's Viceroy, the Khedive; but in reality, consolidating the beneficent influence of England over Egypt. The next year, 1893, saw him at the head of the Khedive's army, with the title of Sirdar, "Commander-in-Chief."

From this time until the outbreak of the Boer War, Kitchener played a leading part in the organization of Egypt, where, since 1879, Sir Evelyn Baring, to be better known as Lord Cromer, was in control of Egypt's political and international relations.

South of the Egyptian frontier, on the upper Nile among the cataracts, Dongola forms, with Berber and Khartoum, a triangle of great trading cities, such as cities are in Arabic Africa. In 1896, Kitchener commanded the military expedition thither, coming out of the campaign with the rank of Major-General; he was also created a Knight Companion of the Bath (the C. B. he had won seven years before), and received other British and Egyptian decora-

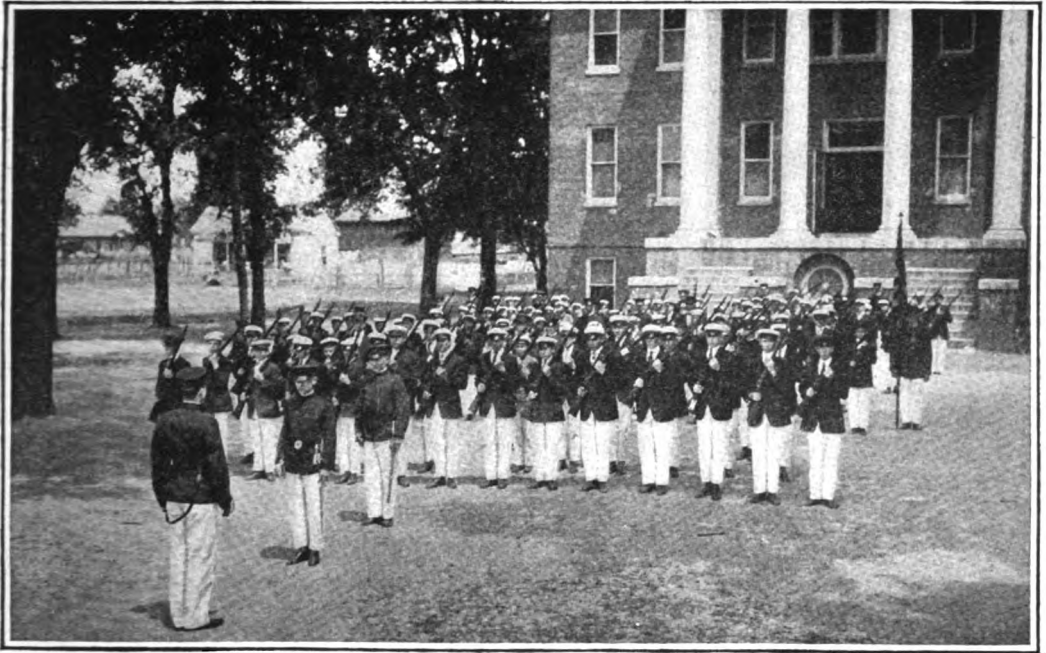
tions. Then, in 1898, came the achievement which gave him world-wide fame.

The fanatical Prophet of Islam, the Mahdi, had raised the standard of war throughout the Sudan, where, in 1885, General Charles Gordon, "Chinese Gordon," as he was called, for his daring exploits against the Tai-ping rebels, had died heroically in a forlorn hope at Khartoum. The Sudan was given up to murder and rapine. Kitchener drove a light railroad southward along the Nile, carried an army swiftly to Omdurman, won a striking victory which gave the Sudan to civilization and prosperity, and gained for himself a peerage and many honors.

This was on the eve of the South African war. The failure of the first British leaders, the beleaguering of Ladysmith and Mafeking, led to greater efforts. Lord Roberts was sent out to South Africa, and Kitchener joined him as Chief of Staff, succeeding him in 1900 as Commander-in-Chief. After the war, a higher title and further honors came to Viscount Kitchener.

His next exploit was the thorough reorganization of the Indian army. He held the position of Commander-in-Chief in India, from 1902 to 1909, and finally overcame the objections of Lord Curzon, the Viceroy, to his reforms. The fine showing of Indian regiments in the world war is largely due to Kitchener's work.

In 1910 Kitchener was in England, a member of the Committee of Imperial Defense. The following year he went to Egypt as "Agent and Consul-General," Lord Cromer's old post, in which Kitchener was serving when the war broke out at the beginning of August, 1914. Kitchener happened to be on short leave in London. There was a discussion, it is said, between Asquith and Lord Haldane as to the work of the War Office. Lord Haldane is reported to have said "The job is too big for you, or for me, or for both of us together; Kitchener is the only man!" So "K. of K." was stopped on his way to Dover, and made Secretary of State for War. Kitchener proved himself not only a great soldier, but a great statesman also. His breadth of view, gained by so much foreign travel, his knowledge of other tongues, enabled him to do splendid service, in the difficult adjustments between the Entente Powers, especially in the International Conferences at Paris. Now his work is ended. But it is also completed. The army of England is ready—such an army as the Empire never saw before and may never see again. That army is Kitchener's monument.



THE BATTALION OF CADETS AT THE SUMTER, S. C., HIGH SCHOOL

PUBLIC SCHOOL BOYS UNDER MILITARY TRAINING

BY LEON M. GREEN

LAST November the REVIEW OF REVIEWS printed an article on "Military Training in the Public School," which set forth the results of fifteen years' experience with the system in the schools of Sumter, S. C. Since then the discussion of military training in the public school has become nationwide. Prof. S. H. Edmunds, superintendent of the Sumter Graded Schools, has received hundreds of letters, from all sections of the country, making further inquiry regarding the system of military training. Since November, too, many schools have adopted the plan of training in vogue at Sumter, S. C. New York State has provided by legislation for military training in the schools, and other States are falling in line.

There has, however, also arisen decided opposition to military training in the public school. The creation of a spirit of militarism and brutality is urged against military training for boys. The original REVIEW OF REVIEWS article partially anticipated this criticism, and showed that in the Sumter schools no bad spirit had been engendered.

Additional proofs of assertions then made are now available. Boys are boys everywhere, and the experience of the Sumter schools may thus be taken as a fair indication of what would happen in other schools.

Professor Edmunds himself has made the following statement with regard to the charge made against military training:

It has been definitely charged that military training in the public high school leads to brutality and militarism. This is no man of straw set up simply for the pleasure of complete demolition; it is an actual reason urged by a prominent educator in a large city not far from Chicago. The chairman of the board of education of that city wrote me that of nine members of the board, five were in favor of military training in the public high school and four opposed. The superintendent had given as his *ex cathedra* opinion that it would surely lead to brutality and militarism. This is a question that cannot be argued in an academic way. There are those who would maintain the affirmative with such convincing cogency as to create an element of doubt in the mind of the seeker after truth, until he should have become fortified by the more logical reasoning of those who could point out the fallacy of such specious reasoning. Fortunately, academic discussion is not necessary. If, after fifteen years of continuous trial, we can show

that military training in the public school does *not* result in militarism or brutality, a very great burden of proof will rest on our opponents to demonstrate without question that our experience is an exception to the general rule.

Professor Edmunds recently wrote to a number of prominent men, asking their opinion of the result of military training in the Sumter schools. These men are all in touch with the schools of that South Carolina city and know what has been accomplished there in the last fifteen years or more.

The Governor of the State, Richard I. Manning, replied as follows:

Nine of my own sons have attended the Sumter schools. I have had abundant opportunity to observe other boys who have been under the same influence. I wish to express the opinion that the military training that the boys have received has been a distinct benefit to them. The objections raised that such training will lead to militarism or brutality are absolutely without foundation in fact. Experience has shown that under military training the boys have shown marked improvement in their carriage and manner; that such training cultivates prompt obedience, alertness, precision, neatness, while at the same time it encourages manliness in deportment and improves the general tone of the student body. I have never seen the first symptom of development of brutality or undue militarism. I have no hesitancy in advising the high schools of this and other states to adopt military training wherever practicable.

The State Superintendent of Education, J. E. Swearingen, wrote:

Their military training has given them that fine touch of politeness and consideration characterizing the intercourse of gentlemen of the highest type. The effects of this training on the school, the boys, and the community have been admirable.

Dr. W. S. Currell, formerly of the University of Virginia, and now president of the University of South Carolina, expressed this opinion:

The University of South Carolina has had pupils from the Sumter high school for a number of years, and they are amongst the best trained and prepared students that we have at our institution. The young men from the high school who have been students at the University of South Carolina give no evidence whatever of brutality, nor do they evince the spirit of militarism falsely said to be characteristic of graduates of military institutions.

Dr. H. N. Snyder, one of the leading educators of the United States, replied to Professor Edmunds as follows:

It gives me great pleasure to say that we find the students trained in the Sumter high school to be well trained not only in scholarship but in conduct and in character. They show none of the quality which those who oppose military training in schools fear.

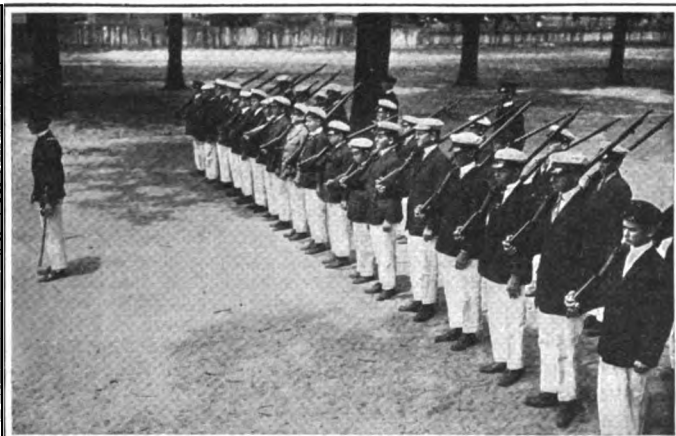
The Mayor of Sumter, Mr. L. D. Jennings, also expressed a favorable opinion:

My observation leads me to the belief that military training in the Sumter schools has not cultivated a spirit of militarism or brutality. On the contrary, it seems to have had the effect of keeping the boys in school until graduation, while fitting them to be soldiers should the necessity arise. I have not seen a single instance among the many boys trained in military tactics in the high school where such training had the slightest tendency toward brutality or the inculcation of a spirit of militarism.

The military value of the high-school boy after such training as that given by the Sumter schools is shown in a report furnished by three members of the National Guard of South Carolina:

1. Since the beginning of military instruction at the Sumter High School, practically all the officers and the non-commissioned officers of the Sumter Light Infantry have been men whose fundamental military training was received during the formative period of life while at the Sumter High School.

2. In comparing recruits coming to us from the Sumter High School with those who have not had previous military training, our experience has been that the former can be placed immediately anywhere in ranks, while the latter have to be trained for a considerable length of time in awkward squads before they can be used at all anywhere.



ONE OF THE CADET COMPANIES OF THE SUMTER PUBLIC SCHOOLS, WITH BOYS AGED FROM TWELVE TO NINETEEN



Photograph by U. S. Bureau of Education

A SCHOOL FAIR, WILLIAMSBURG, VA.

THE COUNTRY SCHOOL'S RE-BIRTH

BY CARL HOLLIDAY

(Professor of English, University of Montana)

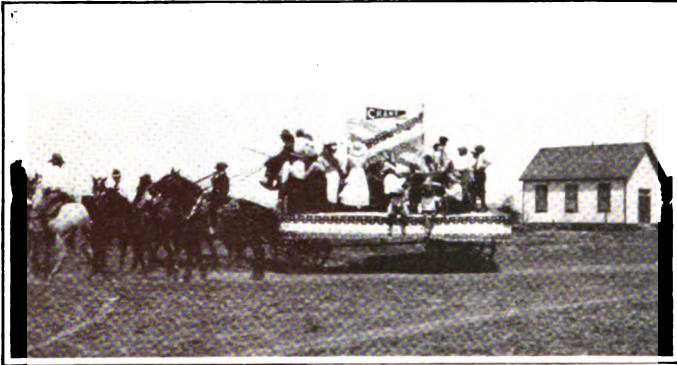


THE COUNTRY SCHOOLHOUSE IS A COMMON MEETING PLACE

DO Americans truly realize the remarkable social and economic changes now taking place through the agency of the small-town and rural schools? Professor James once declared that most people are old fogies at twenty-five, that they have gained at this age hard-set notions and a safe means of making a livelihood, and that they henceforth travel in a comfortable rut. There is undoubtedly a marked tendency among American rural teachers to avoid such a condition; they are realizing that the teacher who never does more than he is paid for never is paid for more than he does. They are realizing that the day is gone when the schoolhouse was intended simply for children; they are seeing to it that the building is fast becoming the most

important center in the community. Consider for a few minutes some facts about the practical results of rural and small-town educational efforts in America.

Apparently the back-to-the-soil movement has had its day. There is in all probability a large enough proportion of the American people now engaged in producing food from the earth—if they only knew how to do it efficiently. The next great economic movement in America will probably be the *countrifing of industries*. Unnoticed, this movement has really been going on for several years. Large cotton factories have sprung up near the cotton fields; paper mills are steadily moving toward the forests; tobacco factories are less and less in the cities, and more and more near the source of raw material. The tendency to move away from crowded centers of population, with their congested apartment life, to the country and small towns where the laborer and his family may have cheap breathing space—in other words, this countrifing of industries—is growing more and more evident. Uncon-



Photograph by U. S. Bureau of Education

FIRST "RURAL LIFE DAY" IN YUMA COUNTY, ARIZONA (SUNNYSIDE SCHOOL DISTRICT), MAY 1, 1914

sciously, perhaps, the rural and town school has been preparing for some time for this change *through the vitalizing of community life*, through the infusion of genuine human interest into the existence of country and town. In short, the school teachers are making rural life as varied and as interesting as city life.

ADVERTISING SCHOOL ACTIVITIES

In the first place, the rural teacher has learned what the merchant long since learned—that in order to get people interested in your institution you must let them know that you have an institution. *Frank publicity for the schoolhouse* is the new method in several States. If crackers, soap, and tobacco are worth advertising certainly education is worth it. Therefore, in Kansas, for instance, a genuine campaign of publicity—plain advertising, if you will—for the schools is in progress. At Fredonia, Kansas, the school people asked for publicity in the local papers—and got it, and the movement has spread rapidly. Country papers in many sections agreed to give one whole issue to the local schools, and some promised to have a regular weekly column of school notes. It is now being suggested in this State as well as in Ohio that a teacher be chosen as county educational editor or reporter to attend to compiling a weekly column of school news and to receive some extra compensation for the work.

What can surpass

a woman as a publicity agent? In Kansas, again, the women's clubs are being used as most effective instruments of publicity. In numerous sections such associations have complied with the request to give one entire meeting to a discussion of the theme: What can be done to improve our local schools? In both Ohio and Kansas representatives from such clubs regularly meet at stated intervals with the County Superintendent and principals to exchange sug-

gestions for such improvements. Of course, such efforts have led to much talk about the schools, and wherever people are talking about education—whether favorably or unfavorably—they thereby prove that they are at least thinking about the schoolhouse. Such an awakening of interest has had as a result, in Kansas, that some school officers are doing what has seldom been done in America—*publishing a monthly statement of the receipt and disbursement of school money*. Of course, some members of school boards have objected to the financial searchlight; but the public has a right to know where its money is going, and any objection to such publicity immediately arouses suspicion.

COMMUNITY ENTERTAINMENTS IN SCHOOL-HOUSES

Still another method now spreading throughout rural America of turning the public interest toward the schoolhouse is that of *inviting every reputable form of entertainment to be held in this building*. Long ago the great merchant-king learned that if he wanted people to buy he must get them

into the habit of coming into his store. Thus Wanamaker spends a small fortune each year giving free concerts, while the Marshall Field establishment maintains children's playrooms that are genuinely costly. Just so the rural school is making determined efforts to have the local neighborhood look



A SCHOOL BUILDING IN JACKSON COUNTY, OREGON, USED AS A MEETING PLACE FOR THE ENTIRE COMMUNITY



Photograph by Russell Sage Foundation

SCHOOL GARDENS AT YONKERS N. Y.

to it as the source of all community entertainment.

Ask the student of rural education about the effects of this, and he will state that, first, it makes people familiar with the inside of the schoolhouse and fastens on them the habit of resorting to it; second, it causes friendly talk, in other words, *publicity*, for the institution; third, it elevates the character of all performances, shows, and other amusements in the community. For citizens will not tolerate in a schoolhouse what they would allow without protest in another place of entertainment.

ENCOURAGING SANE AMUSEMENTS

The average American does not realize how vast this movement has become. In forty-five leading cities of the United States there were assembled at evening entertainments in schoolhouses during one month of 1914 not less than 800,000 people! This decidedly modern tendency is undoubtedly causing profound changes in American society; for, besides the effects mentioned above, this method of amusement induces the young to expend their surplus energy in sane, decent ways, makes local society more democratic, encourages everybody to know everybody, and gives a death-blow to dens of vice. One should not be surprised, therefore, to hear speakers at teachers' institutes in the far West declare that if there is to be a show, a dance, a social, a club meeting, a lodge meeting, a political assembly, a conven-

tion, what-not, see to it that the affair is held in the local schoolhouse.

Recently at the dedication of a rural high school the principal took me to the "game-room," where I found college professors, railroad brakemen, and sawmill hands smoking and playing cards together. My eastern Puritanical inheritance was at first somewhat shocked; but a little thought convinced me that here was the beginning of the end for the low poolrooms and saloons of the neighborhood.

THE COUNTRY THEATER

From North Dakota there has spread another new form of entertainment, *the rural theater*. Founded by a professor in the State Agricultural College, the movement proposes that the country folk as well as the city dwellers shall have their longing for dramatics satisfied. But the country plan excels that of the city; for the rural theater, whether it be in school, barn, church, or farmhouse, is a *community activity* in which man, woman and child take part as actor, stage-hand, business manager, or prompter, and the country production is therefore a more vital expression than the city theater. The institution has spread to neighboring States, and the calls upon the State schools of South Dakota, Montana, and Iowa for acting editions of good plays are fast increasing. Who can calculate the impetus such a movement may give to the future dramatic literature of America?

A COUNTY FAIR MAINTAINED BY CHILDREN

Undoubtedly the country teacher has discovered that whenever he shows that he is interested in his community, the community will become interested in him. All over America this exchange of interest is now occurring. At Hadley, Massachusetts, for instance, there has been instituted what is known as "Trophy Day," an occasion when the products of all the schools of the community are brought together and prizes offered for the best corn, the best cake, the best sewing, and the best other results of the practical activities of children. What an interest this affair arouses each year! Then, too, the teacher's efforts are not ignored; for prizes are offered to the instructor whose students show the best all-round results. This is really nothing less than a *junior county fair*—an educational institution that is rapidly growing popular throughout rural America, and may change the child's whole viewpoint of country life.

DEVELOPING LOCAL RESOURCES

The old-fashioned county fair has almost ceased to exist in most sections; but this new type, supported by the enthusiasm and pride of an ever-fresh army of youthful recruits, is doing more to call attention to local agricultural and industrial possibilities than was ever dreamed of in the days when the grown-ups conducted the exhibition. Moreover, the junior fair, unlike its predecessor, never leaves a deficit; for the best ears of corn are always in demand as seed, the dresses and other pieces of sewing find a ready sale; as

do cakes, canned fruits, and other eatables.

And this leads to the next important movement now in progress in American rural education—the *school survey of local resources*. Here is an endeavor so intensely practical that its success is assured. Sometimes it has taken the form of pointing out deficiencies, as in the "Good Roads Day" movement inaugurated by country schools of North Carolina, where numerous rural schools have called meetings of neighboring farmers to consider the state of the highways, road experts have delivered talks, and the results have been some of the best country pikes in America. And the benefits of this endeavor have not been confined to the farmer; they have been returned to the country teachers; in Durham County, for example, the improved roads have caused a 50 per cent. increase in school attendance.

More often the school industrial and agricultural survey has taken a positive turn in showing the good elements of the section, and many a community has been astonished at the local resources discovered by the children. Common questions now heard throughout the Western States are: Can you tell what are the financial resources of your county? Why don't your schools make a financial survey? Naturally this practical form of inquiry causes the boy to "ask Dad," which causes Dad to think and inquire, which causes the whole community to investigate. In Ohio, Wisconsin, and Iowa, various rural schools have inaugurated this movement, have tabulated and published the results, and have even established a *permanent exhibit of county resources in the schoolhouse*.

This scheme was founded, in many particulars, several years ago in an English institution, Berley House School, where not only were permanent exhibits of coal, iron, tin, and other English resources maintained, but also ores were buried in the school campus amidst such environments as would be most likely to exist where the minerals were commonly found; the students prospected for the deposits, sank shafts, hired student labor for mining, planned miniature railroads leading to carefully planned factories, studied marine routes and



Photograph by U. S. Dept. of Agriculture

CLUB GIRLS AT THE IDAHO STATE FAIR BEING TAUGHT HOUSEHOLD ECONOMICS



"PLAYING HOUSE" ON A LARGER SCALE THAN USUAL. THE CHILDREN AT NEW PALTZ, N. Y., HAVE THE FARM WITH ITS FENCES, AND PASTURE LOTS, AND ALSO A FINE HOMEMADE BARN AS A COMPANION PIECE TO THE HOUSE

markets, and thus learned geology, industrial and commercial geography, transportation, banking, labor problems, manual training, and general commerce in a way that no book could ever teach.

Here in America the plan has never been followed out to this degree; but numerous small-town and rural schools have inaugurated county investigations and established the county-resource exhibit room. In Licking County, Ohio, and at Cascade and Kalispell, Montana; for instance, the school fairs with their exhibits and data charts have been a revelation to the community.

INSTRUCTION FOR ADULTS

In connection with these local "shows" there is often some exceedingly practical instruction given for the grown-ups. Right here is probably the beginning of the next important movement in American education—the effort to continue school instruction throughout the entire life of the citizen. Good examples of such practical teaching were recently shown at the high school of Sterling, Colorado, where, in a three-days' course in cement work, thirty-five farmers learned to make concrete floors, steps, and posts, and at Kalispell, Montana, where experiments in the making of nine kinds of cement were conducted. This is a long step from the old-fashioned school training of

the three R's and birch rods; but it is simply an indication of the coming influence of the rural school as an economic and social agency. And this influence is beginning to be realized by men high in authority. For instance, Superintendent Ray, of the little town of Ashley, Ohio, made his student investigations of local agriculture so famous that the Pennsylvania Department of Education sent a man out to the little community to see how such an unusual thing was accomplished.

STUDYING COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY

Such efforts to make education vital to community welfare have led to another important step—the establishment of *school chambers of commerce*. It would surprise many a business man to see with what accuracy, confidence, and precision the boys and girls in these assemblies discuss local industrial possibilities, plan marketing, and examine transportation and commercial problems. If all town commercial clubs really went at the work of building up their community industries with similar scientific knowledge and intelligent foresight, America would soon double its productive efficiency. And it should be noted, further, that all such endeavors have a subtle beneficial effect upon both student and teacher as well as the community. They make the



GIRLS' BASKET BALL TEAMS OF THE RURAL HIGH SCHOOL AT BIGGS, BUTTE COUNTY, CALIFORNIA

that its initiative movements have revolutionized rural life within its borders. Within five years it has established the following institutions, customs and movements: boys' corn-growing contests; a county teachers' association; school fairs and entertainments netting several thousand dollars for the purchase of pictures and statuary; debating, declaiming, athletic, spelling, arithmetic, sewing, and cooking contests or meets all over the county; a monthly printed bulletin published for the information of teachers, pupils, and parents on all subjects pertaining to local education; agricultural training out in

boy think that he is doing something definite, fill him with praiseworthy zeal to serve his community, make the community look to the school for information, make life more varied and therefore far more endurable for the rural teacher, broaden the pedagogue's interest, and remove the common danger to the American country teacher—that of *rusting out*.

WHAT ONE WISCONSIN COUNTY IS DOING

Imagine what all the endeavors mentioned above might accomplish if carried out in one community! Have you heard of Sauk County, Wisconsin? It is fast becoming the talk of educational circles. Its motto evidently is: "We do it ourselves," with the result

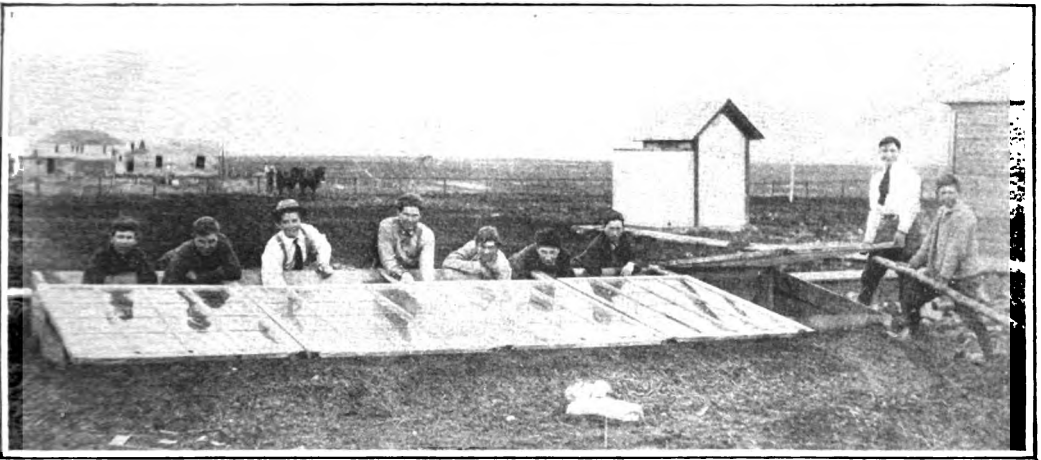
the fields for man, woman, and child; the serving of warm lunches to all students; a rural school survey with resulting maps and charts; school district agricultural fairs; farmers' clubs throughout the county (the first one bearing the euphonious name of The Skillet Creek Farmers' Club); the founding of thirty-two clubs and societies in the county so that everybody can have opportunity to air his views; a county school banquet every winter and a county school picnic every summer; community singing throughout the county.

Indeed, life has become decidedly worth the living in Sauk County. Some morning the people will awake to read in the "school bulletin" that their County Superintendent,



Photograph by C. C. Thompson

ASSEMBLY HALL IN A SCHOOL AT TOUCHET, WASHINGTON, LARGE ENOUGH FOR PEOPLE FROM OTHER DISTRICTS



TEACHING AGRICULTURE THE RIGHT WAY—BOYS OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL AT ST. IGNATIUS, MONTANA. WEEDING THE HOT BED

George W. Davis, has been lured away by a \$5,000 job as head of some larger educational effort; but Sauk County has foreseen this and has lately appointed a deputy to learn all the tricks in this business of making affairs hustle in the county.

We cannot examine in detail all these various important undertakings of this one county; but note the results of just one—the school survey of resources. First, the facts of local and home geography are noted. The near-at-home facts of civics, history, agriculture and farm arithmetic are collected and studied. School district maps are drawn showing the location of roads, streams, schools, homes, halls, churches, creameries, cheese-factories, grist-mills, timber areas, alfalfa fields, silos, pure-bred herds of cattle, orchards, untilled lands, rented farms, running water in farm kitchens, bathrooms, pianos, automobiles, lighting systems, paved roads, and farmers' clubs or other organizations. The survey for the year 1913-1914 showed 24 creameries, 29 cheese-factories, 40 Babcock milk-testers in schools, 530 silos, 850 acres of alfalfa on 325 farms, 391 rented farms, 92 herds of pure-bred cattle, 404 automobiles owned by farmers, 32 rural social organizations, 68 electric-lighted and 78 gas-lighted farm homes, 227 bathrooms, 270 kitchens supplied with running water, and 635 farm homes with pianos. Does any regular Chamber of Commerce in America know as much about its surrounding territory? Naturally, several of these plans have been adopted by other sections; as, for example, in the schools of Kimball County, Nebraska, and Boulder County, Colorado, and it is only a matter of time until every

progressive county in the United States will be rejuvenating its rural life through the very same processes.

FIGHTING WASTE AND SLOTH

A charge commonly brought against our modern American youth is that he lacks economy and thrift. Here again the American rural school is quietly causing a social and economic revolution. A movement started in Garrett County, Maryland, under the name of the Pupils' Economy League is spreading throughout the country districts with surprising rapidity, and undoubtedly will, in time, save many millions of dollars of avoidable waste. Each member of the association wears the league button—what child does not want a badge of some sort?—and upon becoming a member promises to aid in every manner possible in obtaining greater returns for educational expenditures and in saving community money.

He agrees to report and, if possible, to prevent the destruction of fences, the defacement of buildings, the mutilation of interiors, the breaking of glass, the loss of furniture, books, and instruments, and to inform the proper officials concerning bad places in roads, broken or leaking pipes, damaged sidewalks, dangerous trees, and the multitude of other things that are inimical to life and property. Moreover, on the last Friday of each month the league has a dignified general meeting in which plans for community improvements are proposed and discussed by the earnest youngsters. This is indeed teaching good citizenship by the only reliable process—that of being good citizens.



Courtesy of Prof. Garland A. Bricker, Syracuse University

A MANUAL TRAINING CLASS, WITH THE WORK WHICH THEY ACCOMPLISHED DURING THE FIRST THREE MONTHS. (SCHOOL DISTRICT NO. 6, WOODLAND, WISCONSIN). ROSCOE HUTCHINS, TEACHER

DIAGRAMMING THE COW

The old-fashioned primer said primly:

See the cow.
Is she not beautiful?
The cow can run.
But the horse can run faster than the cow.

Little Johnnie would have expressed it differently:

Put your peepers on the cow.
Ain't she a bute?
She can git a hump on herself.
But she ain't in it with the horse.

But the cow is decidedly "in it"—especially at the present high price of beef. So over in the country schools of Ohio "cow charts" are being used to show the student exactly the nutritive value of each section of the animal, and what the proper price of a pound from each section should be. The picture displays the cow diagrammed as the butcher would divide her; each portion is numbered, and the selling price is marked on each section. The children attempt to draw by memory the diagrammed cow, and after five or six lessons can outline that cow's financial anatomy to perfection. No more can the Ohio butcher impose upon the innocent young wife and sell her a piece of chuck steak for a T-bone, or a slice of shoulder for a sirloin. This is beginning thrift at the

right end; for a penny saved is a penny made.

SCHOOL GARDENS

Then, too, this school-garden movement in the rural and small-town school—what statistician can really calculate how much it has added to the wealth of this country? At Canton, Illinois, for illustration, the teachers aroused the Parent-Teachers' Association to the importance of having gardens for the children. The Association put it before the town commercial club; the club procured vacant lots and offered prizes; the town and country papers took it up as a good news item. Soon the whole neighborhood was talking about it. Two hundred and eight gardens were grown, and three judges from the Board of Education, the Parent-Teachers' Association, and the Commercial Club judged the plats according to crop, arrangement, size, cultivation, location, and preparation. They should have added something for perspiration; for the total results showed real work. From that one season's efforts came produce valued at \$1008.80. There were radishes worth \$193.27; onions to the value of \$176.59, and lettuce amounting to \$183.14.

Look for a moment at the physical, intellectual, and moral results of such a movement. It gave direct financial aid to several families genuinely in need of help; it fur-



TEACHING THE BOYS TO MAKE CONCRETE, IN SCHOOL DISTRICT NO. 8, TOWN OF GREENBURGH, WESTCHESTER COUNTY, N. Y.

nished fresh vegetables for many a table that knew too often only pork and beans; it furnished employment and entertainment for young people who otherwise might have found devilment for their idle hours; it awakened real interest in the soil and in nature; it caused more interest in child life; it created a better understanding between home and school; it gained the coöperation of parents in educational efforts; it trained the mind and eye toward an appreciation of the orderly, the clean, and the beautiful; it taught perseverance and thrift.

BANKING FOR SCHOOL-CHILDREN

But by far the most important school movement to-day in the interest of thrift is the *school savings bank*. Do we Americans truly realize the magnitude of this endeavor? To-day there are over \$1,300,000 in these savings banks created by the school-teachers, and more than 217,000 children are depositors. Founded in 1873 by a Belgian teacher, Professor Laurent, of Ghent, the school banking system was first inaugurated in America at Long Island City by another Belgian, John H. Thirty, and to-day from Maine to California the youngsters are depositing their pennies and "jitneys." Generally the school keeps the child's money until the sum of \$3 is reached, and then deposits in the youngster's name in a bank paying at least 3 per cent. The amounts deposited in the cities since the beginning of the system have, of course,

been large—\$600,000 in Pittsburgh and \$250,000 in Toledo—but in towns like Helena and Great Falls, Montana, and Chester, Pennsylvania, the savings of children also show astounding growth.

OTHER ACTIVITIES OF COUNTRY SCHOOLS

Such are a few of the many vital activities of workers in our rural and town schools. Space will not permit explanation of the many other practical efforts to make life profitable and interesting for every country and town child;—how, for example, in North Carolina and Montana the teacher has set the students to collecting the county legends and history, interviewing the oldtimers, and thus storing up a heritage of worthy pride; how in all rural communities of Florida a careful physical examination of every child by agents of the State Board of Health is now required; how the rural-school warm



A CLASS IN FAIRFIELD COUNTY, OHIO, STUDYING HORTICULTURE AND PRACTISING CLEFT-GRAFTING WITH WAX



Photograph by Thomas C. Newman

CHILD'S WELFARE ASSOCIATION OF CHANUTE, KANSAS

lunch, with its well-balanced ration, has spread its savory odors from the one-room prairie school in Nebraska, where it was first cooked, to every State in the Union; how the white children on the Flathead Indian Reservation in Montana study arithmetic by feeding and weighing pigs; how in some counties of the same State a house and ten acres are being provided free for the rural principal so that he may be more contented and permanent; how in rural New York, Ohio, Montana, and Washington the children are taught to sing, not by some cracked-voiced pedagogue, but by means of phonograph records of the best voices in the world; how in East Chicago, Indiana, and Williamsburg, Virginia, the rural child is being promoted on the basis of his doing his best, and not on the heartless grading system; how the Rural Life Association in Montana has gained such influence that it has induced the Governor to start the custom of setting aside one day known as Rural Life Day for the

study of country conditions; how at Lewistown, in the same State, the schoolboys built four of the buildings in such a manner that the structures are the pride of the community; how—but what's the use? We are only started; as Kipling would say, "All that is another story."

The old fogies may snarl and declare that the children had better be learning how to cipher and spell; the dilettante may complain that we are worshiping materialism; the classicist may wail that the inspiration of Greek and Latin is lost forever; but the fact remains that the present generation of rural children is reaching citizenship with more knowledge and appreciation of its responsibilities and powers, and with more zeal for social welfare and brotherhood than we or our fathers ever dreamed of. Surely the old-time pedagogue was right when he declared:

"Things ain't now what they uster was ben
And people don't do now what they uster did
then."



A RALLY AT THE SCOFIELD SCHOOL, ETNA TOWNSHIP, LICKING COUNTY, OHIO

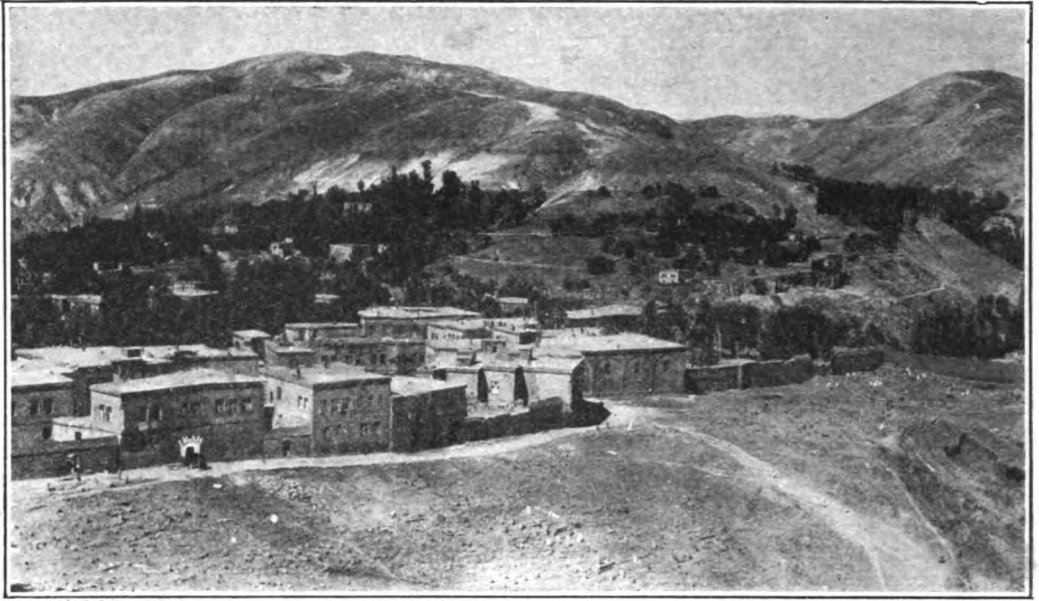
A NEW SCHOOL SYSTEM FOR MARYLAND

SINCE the first day of last month the State of Maryland has been living and working under a new school system—one that is pronounced by those who have given the matter careful study a distinct improvement over the former system. The numerous and important changes in the State school laws came about as the result of a State-wide survey of school conditions in Maryland made by the General Education Board. This survey was begun two years ago, at the invitation of the State government, by which a large portion of the expense was paid. The recommendations of the Survey Commission, headed by Dr. Abraham Flexner and Dr. Frank P. Bachman, were set forth in an illustrated book of nearly two hundred pages which was published and distributed in January last. The bill making effective the recommendations of the report was introduced in the Legislature on February 25, passed both branches on April 3, and within a short time was signed by Governor Harrington.

The new features added to the Maryland State school law by this measure are summarized by State Superintendent Stephens as follows:

1. Members of State and county school boards are henceforth to be appointed by the Governor, regardless of party affiliation and without the advice and consent of the Senate. This is a great step in the direction of eliminating politics from the membership of these bodies.
2. Standard qualifications are established for State and county superintendents, school supervisors, truant officers, and teachers of special subjects. The approval of such appointments by the State Department is required and one-half of their salaries are to be paid out of the State funds.
3. The minimum salary of the county superintendent is fixed at \$1800.
4. Broad powers are given to the State and county superintendents in professional matters.
5. State certification of teachers is established.
6. A minimum school year of seven months for colored and nine months for white schools is required.
7. Compulsory school attendance is required of all children between the ages of seven and thirteen years during the entire school year.
8. Approval by the State Superintendent of all plans for new school buildings and for repairs in excess of \$300 is provided for.
9. Teachers will henceforth be appointed by the county superintendent and confirmed by the County Board of Education.
10. A minimum county school tax rate of 34 cents must be levied, with the right of the County Board of Education to demand 40 cents.
11. State school funds will be apportioned as follows: Two-thirds on number of children between the ages of six and fourteen and one-third on the school attendance.
12. A high-school supervisor, a rural-school supervisor, a white supervisor for the colored schools, and an additional clerk are added to the staff of the State department of education.
13. A primary supervisor must be appointed in each county having 100 teachers; also an attendance officer in each county and a stenographer for each county superintendent.
14. A biennial school census must be taken.

Governor Harrington, himself a teacher and educator of thirteen years' experience, declared that the recommendations of the Survey Commission met with his heartiest approval. Superintendent Stephens has added to his cordial endorsement of the new law the statement that in his judgment more vital school legislation has been obtained for Maryland in a single year than would have been likely to be passed in twenty years if there had been no aid from outside the State.



BITLIS, TURKEY, LOOKING TO THE WEST

(The large building, a little to the right of the middle, of which three arch windows show, is the Protestant church. Back of it, and a little to the left, is the Boys' School, the Girls' School, and the Knapp residence)

ARMENIANS AND AMERICAN INTERESTS UNDER RUSSIA

BY REV. GEORGE F. HERRICK, D.D.

POLITICS in the Near East has long been a witches' cauldron of large dimensions. American missionaries resident at Constantinople have, by the necessities of their position, been obliged carefully to watch the stew without stirring it. Their constant service and sympathy have been given to the suffering *peoples* by whom they have been surrounded. They are there to help the people, who are often in dire need of help.

MISSIONARIES AND POLITICS

Watch the racial and national impact and clashing they must. They must do this the more carefully and warily when the sky is darkest and the storm clouds are most threatening.

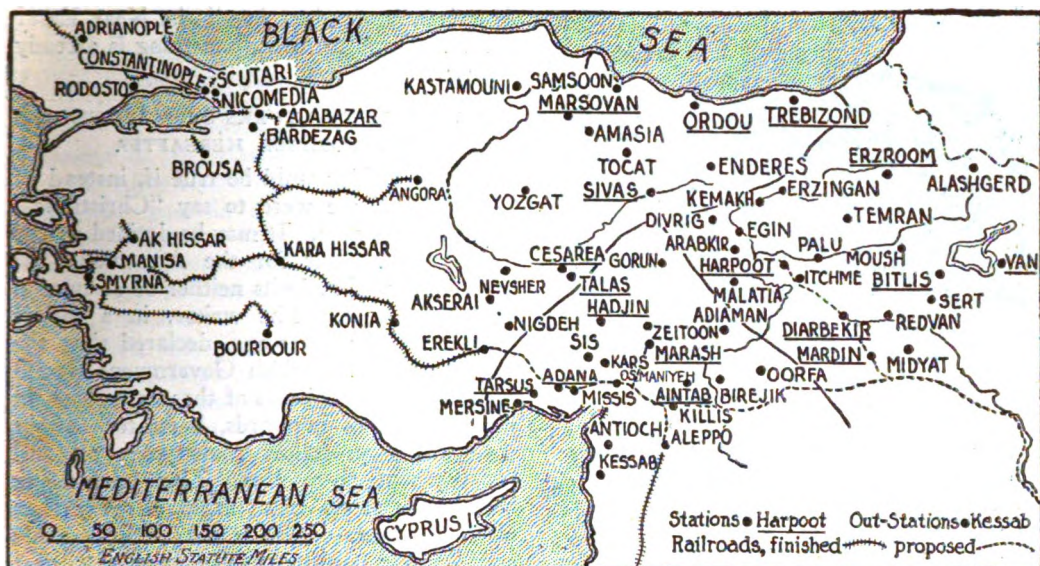
Their friends of the West have long been calling to them, "Watchmen, what of the night? Are there any signs of dawn?" Then suddenly, when other calamities seem to be overpast, when the war with Italy and the barbarous Balkan wars are ended comes the tremendous shock and clash of this world war.

For the past two years no American in Turkey has claimed any "open vision." Those who could remain at their post have done their work under sore limitations, and the work they have done has been, in large part, giving help to those overtaken by terrible suffering. There was never yet a night so dark or a darkness so prolonged that dawn and a full day did not follow. Americans resident in Turkey have lived and worked in expectation of such a day.

TURKEY AT THE PARTING OF THE WAYS

On August 1, 1914, Turkey stood at the parting of the ways. Shall she join the Allies, her two old and tried friends, England and France, now linked with her ancient enemy Russia? Shall she yield to the three-fold pressure of the Power that in recent years has been posing as her friend, Germany? Shall she take the middle course and keep strictly neutral in the war?

It required scarcely more than "horse sense" to see that the third course alone was the path of safety. So thought the Sultan. Such was the judgment of Yusuf Izzeddin,



MAP SHOWING THE AMERICAN MISSION STATIONS AND OUT-STATIONS IN ASIA MINOR

the heir-apparent, the ablest member of the Imperial House, fallen at last the victim of his bitter enemy Enver, the Minister of War. With the Sultan and the heir-apparent agreed the Grand Vizier, the Sheikh ul Islam, and at least two others of the cabinet. But Enver and Talaat, with the *compelling* influence of the Germans, made a majority, and the tightening of the suicidal cord began.

THE TURKS JUBILANT

For a long time the cord seemed soft as velvet. The Turks succeeded far beyond their own hopes. The glories of their brilliant past were suffering eclipse before their marvelous victories over England and France combined. They were to recover their European possessions. They were to drive Russia out of the Caucasus and extend their eastern boundary to the Caspian. They were to wrest Odessa, Sevastopol, and all the northwest coast of the Black Sea from defeated Russia, repossess Egypt and Tripoli, gain over the Mohammedans of India and become, with Persia and Afghanistan, the dominant Asiatic power.

All this was writ large in the Turkish papers of Constantinople last summer. So ended the year 1915—but hold!

THE "FALL" OF THE GRAND DUKE NICHOLAS

The Turks chuckled over the "utter defeat" and collapse of Russia and the "fall" of the Grand Duke Nicholas in the summer of 1915, because the "defeat" was under his leadership; or was his "exile" due to the fact

that his personal influence in the army was prejudicial to the safety of the Czar and his government!

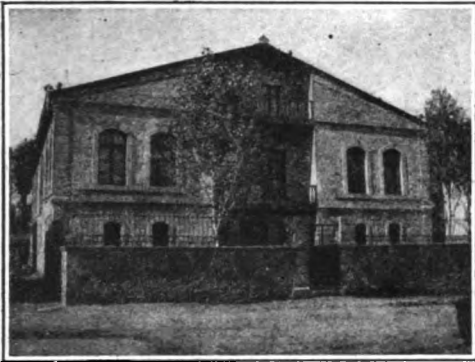
It seems not to have penetrated the Turkish intelligence that when the Allies had discovered that the Turks—and Germans—had defended and guarded access to their front door, the Dardanelles, with such skill as to make forcing an entrance too costly, the natural thing to do next would be to try the back door. What if that "exile" Nicholas were getting busy with an efficiency and apleness of preparation equal to German efficiency, all through the autumn months, to do something later on!

ERZERUM

The Turks and Germans had, they thought, made Erzerum, their strongest Asiatic fortress, lying six thousand feet above sea level, quite impregnable to any attack by Russia, and they were taking breath in winter, ready for a spring campaign. Why did the Turks fail to guess that perhaps the Russian bear, legions of them, might choose midwinter in a Greenland climate, under masses of snow, to overleap all barriers and successfully defy all opposition to their possession of the city which was the great stronghold and defense of Turkey on the northeast?

The Turks declared the place "of no military value," *after they had lost it*.

The Russians took no rest till they had driven the defeated Turks southward beyond Mush, Bitlis, and Van, and had taken



THE GIRLS' SCHOOL BUILDING OF THE AMERICAN BOARD MISSION AT ERZERUM

possession of those cities and their villages, and had also pushed northward to the Black Sea coast and then westward toward Trebizond, a city which has held a proud place in history for more than two thousand years, next to Erzerum in its value to the Turks.

TREBIZOND AND AFTER

Trebizond fell to Russia on April 15, two months after Erzerum. When one considers the terrain on which the Russian armies have had to operate since the fall of Erzerum and the distances they have marched in an enemy's country, what they have accomplished in these four months is simply marvelous. Trebizond is not so important a commercial port as Samsoun and, as a harbor, Sinope is incomparably better than either of these places. It is, in fact, the one fine harbor on the south shore of the Black Sea. Since the fall of Trebizond the Black Sea is potentially Russian, and the advance of the Russian armies along the south shore cannot long be effectually resisted.

The rapid movement of the Russian armies southward is still more immediately important. When Mosul, Bagdad, and the whole eastern portion of the Berlin-Bagdad railway are in Russian hands, Turkey and the Turks will be at the mercy of their mighty ancient foe. Russia has ten times the population of Turkey, and with the knowledge close at hand of the treatment their fellow Christians, the Armenians, have suffered at the hands of the Turks now in power, the mercy the Turks can hope for from Russia can best be stated in minus terms. They are trembling, and with reason, at what the near future will reveal.

What is to be the effect of these stupendous changes upon the fortunes of the Armenian people and upon the stability of

American institutions in all the Near East?

As to the Armenians, one thing is already certain.

THE RULE OF THE TURKS OVER ARMENIANS IS IMPOSSIBLE HEREAFTER

Whether this would be true if, instead of "Armenians" we were to say "Christians," remains to be seen. It may be decided in the near future. But for the Armenians the case is clear. It admits neither of discussion nor experiment. The writer, in a public utterance three years ago, declared that the stability of the Turkish Government would depend on the readiness of those in power, in fact as well as in words, hereafter to put their Christian fellow countrymen on full equality with themselves. They have never been ready to do this. *How* *unready* they were has been demonstrated with horrible and ghastly distinctness during the past year. Kindly as we may still feel toward the Turkish *people*, the case against their government is closed. Judgment is pronounced. Christians of every race refuse to submit to *independent* Turkish rule.

The Armenians, a race with an honorable record in history extending back more than two thousand years, are still a live and virile people. The Turks undertook their extermination. The undertaking was impossible of accomplishment. There are now living, scattered in many lands, close on three million Armenians. A large part of Armenia has already passed under Russian rule. Before the war the Armenian population of South Russia was very large. Probably nearly two million Armenians are now Russian subjects. The portions of Turkey already conquered by Russia have a large Armenian population.

Among the hundreds of thousands—half a million probably in all—scattered in Persia, Egypt, America, and other countries, many of that people will return to their beloved fatherland when they feel sure that they will be safe and prosper under Christian rule. They count on the growing liberality of the Russian Government in recent years.

Some of the largest and most intelligent and progressive portions of the Armenian race have had their homes south of the Taurus range of mountains. It is yet too soon to tell what is to be the future of that portion of the Turkish dominions, or how the final settlement at the end of the war will leave the Armenians of that region.

Concerning the future of Constantinople the prophet who will speak with authority

has not yet received his commission. There are now at least 125,000 Armenians and 200,000 Greeks in that city.

RUSSIA AND AMERICAN INSTITUTIONS

Coming to the question which more immediately concerns Americans, the first query which will arise in many minds will be, "Will not Russian rule be prejudicial to American interests, especially to missionary work in the provinces newly acquired by that government?"

It is well known that till recent years American missionaries deprecated any encroachment of Russian power into Turkey. A glance backward will help to understand the position of the early missionaries, and a consideration of events and changes which have taken place in recent years will furnish us with grounds for our confidence that the position and work of Americans in those lands will be stronger than ever in the past.

The writer's personal acquaintance with conditions in Turkey began in 1859. Then, and for many years thereafter, it was not permitted American missionaries even to pass through Russia on their way to Persia or to Van. "My imperial master, the Czar of all the Russias, will not permit American missionaries to gain a foothold for influence in Turkey," said the Russian Ambassador at Constantinople three-quarters of a century ago.

Years later, General Ignatieff, then Russian Ambassador in Constantinople, was asked to order the visé of the passport of an American missionary who wished to pass through Russia on his way to Persia. When he saw that the profession of the gentleman was left blank, he demanded that the blank be filled out. The American Minister replied: "The gentleman is an American citizen. He is to make no stop on Russian soil. He cannot, therefore, exercise his profession, whatever it be, in Russia. I have ordered his passport made out in this form. Kindly see that it is viséd." The Ambassador winced at seeing the corner he was in and for once yielded.

In 1895-1896 the Turks charged the American missionaries—falsely, as they afterward learned—with fostering Armenian sedition, and in March, 1897, they sent Rev. George P. Knapp from Bitlis to Alexandretta under guard, and were prevented from expelling him from the country by the effective interposition of Mr. Riddle, then American Charge d'Affaires, supported

by the British Ambassador, Sir Philip Currie. It was then that the Russian Ambassador, Count Nelidoff, said to the Grand Vizier, who complained of the American missionaries, "Why don't you send them out of the country?" An edict for their expulsion was issued by the Sultan. Sir Philip Currie promptly informed the Grand Vizier that such an act would incur the displeasure of his government. The edict was suppressed and its issue denied. The denial furnished the reason for the writer to seek an interview with the keeper of the archives of the British embassy, with the result that the fact above stated concerning the edict of expulsion was verified.

This was twenty years ago. Till that time Americans resident in Turkey felt little desire to see Turkish shiftiness replaced by rigid Russian intolerance. Their hopes for reforms in the interest of the Christian population of Asia Minor, based on Article 61 of the Berlin treaty of 1878, had been disappointed by the failure of Great Britain's efforts, though such able men as Sir Charles Wilson and Lieutenant (the late Earl) Kitchener were sent into the country.

GERMANY AND AMERICAN ENTERPRISE IN TURKEY

German influence soon gained the ascendancy. This became very evident to Americans nearly ten years ago, in the case of what was there called "the Chester scheme" for building some two thousand kilometres of railway in Asia Minor. The plan was foredoomed to failure, but not at all because of Turkish opposition. The scheme, if carried out, would have been a great boon to Turkey. But German influence, and concessions they had already obtained, completely blocked the American plans. Those plans, if carried out, would have been a serious check on German influence. Indeed, combined with English and French influence, would have checkmated Germany, and the Turks would not have been on the side of Germany in the present war.

PRESENT CONDITIONS

Coming to the problem that now faces Americans and their institutions in the Near East, under Russian rule, the first thing to be noticed is the very great change which has taken place in recent years in the condition of those institutions. Property investment in buildings and their grounds was small in the early years. There was no stamp of permanence in the plants of schools and hospi-

tals. All that has changed. Even our embassy was lodged in rented buildings till less than ten years ago. Our consulate is still so lodged. The separate incorporated bodies that represent American missionary, educational, and philanthropic work in what we have known as Turkey—not including Egypt—are twenty-four, viz.:

1. The American Board.
2. * Woman's Board of Missions, Boston.
3. * Woman's Board of Missions of the Interior.
4. * Woman's Board of Missions for the Pacific.
5. Euphrates College.
6. Central Turkey College, including Hospital.
7. * St. Paul's College, Tarsus.
8. * Anatolia College, Marsovan.
9. * International College, Smyrna.
10. Thessalonica Agricultural and Industrial Institute.
11. American Bible Society.
12. Bible House, Constantinople.
13. American Tract Society.
14. Presbyterian Board of Missions.
15. Presbyterian Woman's Board of Missions.
16. American Friends' Mission.
17. National Armenia Relief Association.
18. Reformed Church in America.
19. Young Men's Christian Association.
20. Young Women's Christian Association.
21. American Hospital, Konia.
22. Robert College.
23. Constantinople College (for girls).
24. Syrian Protestant College.

Besides the above, there are thirty-four institutions, not separately incorporated, under the direction of the American Board:

FOR GIRLS

The College at Marash.
The Collegiate Institute at Smyrna.
The Anatolia (Collegiate) School at Marsovan.
High schools at Gedik Pasha, Constantinople, at Adabazar, at Brusa, at Talas, Caesarea, at Sivas, at Aintab, at Adana, at Hadjin, at Bitlis, at Van, at Erzerum, and at Mardin.

FOR YOUNG MEN

Theological schools at Marash, at Marsovan, and at Mardin.
Collegiate and Theological Institute at Samokov, in Bulgaria.

FOR BOYS

High school (to become a college) at Van.
High schools at Barderag, at Sivas, at Talas, Caesarea, at Erzerum, and two industrial schools at Oorfa, and schools at Trebizond and Ordo, the latter under native control.

HOSPITALS

At Marsovan, at Talas, Caesarea, at Sivas, at Harpoot, at Van, at Adana, at Mardin, and at Diarbekir.

The reason no church or other ecclesiastical buildings are included in this list is

that, while in the early years of American missionary work in Turkey the Protestant communities were aided pecuniarily in the erection of their churches and common school buildings, this property is now owned and controlled by the native communities.

No details are here given of the great work of the Bible Society, of the publication and other work centered at the Bible House, or of the most important and extended work of the Presbyterian Board in Syria.

The American money expended in the establishment and administration of these institutions during the eighty-five years of their existence has been nearly \$40,000,000. They represent to-day in actual ownership of property a little over \$8,000,000, and their actual yearly running expenses, in addition to receipts from native sources, were, before the war, just about \$1,000,000.

Only six of these institutions have as yet come under Russian rule, but the six institutions at Harpoot, Diarbekir, and Mardin are likely also to come under Russian rule.

The attitude of Russian officials toward Americans in charge of those institutions is all that can be desired and furnishes a reassuring promise for the future. In view of the close relation formed between Russia and England and France, the relation of that great empire to Americans in Turkey has totally changed. In any event, American institutions in that land will, it is believed, be safer under Russian than they would be under German rule.

The hour of disillusion for the Turks has struck. It is the crucial hour for their government, perhaps the hour of doom. For the people it may be a new beginning, the significance of which they can as yet but very imperfectly estimate. Russia has some thirty million Moslem subjects, peaceful and prosperous like the Moslem subjects of Great Britain, France, and Holland. The Turks are enduring intolerable suffering as the result of the entrance of their government into the war. The return of peace will find them stripped of all that makes life worth living. In despair they will cling to any sincere offers of help. Such offers will be made by those they are now told to count their enemies. But Americans only will be so situated that they can give them both the material and the spiritual aid of which they will be conscious they are in dire need. It may be our privilege and our glory to take the lead in saving not only an ancient Christian race, but a vigorous Moslem race also from destruction.

*Working with and under the general direction of the American Board.

THE SIMMERING BALKANS

BY T. LOTHROP STODDARD

WHAT will happen upon the summer's battlefields lies on the knees of the gods, but since the action of the soldier is so vitally dependent upon the decision of the statesman, we may well essay the role of augurs by casting a glance into the seething Balkan witches' cauldron and attempting to descry amid its swirling flux some omens of the hidden future.

Three chief ingredients go to make up the hell-broth—Bulgaria, Rumania, and Greece. To Greece let us first turn.

THE PATHETIC SITUATION OF GREECE

Poor Hellas to-day presents a melancholy spectacle of economic distress, political confusion, and partisan recrimination. For almost a year she has stood literally between the devil and the deep sea. All along her northern frontier has hung the Teuton-Bulgar tide, a suspending wave ready to crash down and blot out her fairest provinces should she venture to enter the lists against the Central Powers. Yet off every Grecian shore has coiled the great sea-serpent of the maritime powers, spurning her neutrality, seizing her ports, ready to strangle her like Laocoön at the first whisper of resistance.

And the peril from without is heightened by dissension from within. While King Constantine and his supporters, entrenched in office, continue to asseverate that peace alone can save Greece from instant destruction and grimly pursue the path of neutrality despite every menace of the Western powers, a good half of the nation follows ex-Premier Venizelos in denouncing neutrality as the source of all its woes and demands full compliance with the Allies' imperious will.

As nearly as can be judged the Greek people is about equally divided on this issue, the lines of cleavage running in accordance with geographical position and economic interest. Roughly speaking, we may say that the mainland is for neutrality, while the port towns and islands are for an Entente alliance and war. This is just about what we might expect. The peasants, whether of exposed Macedonia or distant Peloponnesus, are deadly sick of fighting and long above everything else to till their neglected farms in

peace. But the ship-owners and traders of the ports and the sailors and fishers of the islands all lie in the hollow of the Entente's hand. Ruin might overwhelm them in an hour's bombardment, while the great Greek merchant marine of nearly three million tons could be seized within a few days.

The query naturally arises how the Greek people would act in case of an Allied ultimatum to join the Western powers or be treated as an enemy. This is by no means an academic question. The Allies' attitude towards Greece is rapidly becoming more menacing. At the beginning of the war they counted upon Greek assistance almost as a matter of course, and Greek neutrality has therefore roused the Allied nations to a pitch of angry disappointment highly dangerous for this little people. Russia (never really friendly to Greece), has long been urging ruthless coercion. What has perhaps saved Greece so far has been the strong traditional Philhellenic sentiment in France and England. But even there public opinion is changing fast against Greece, and it is safe to say that the French and English governments could to-day do things which a year ago would have roused intense public disapprobation.

There can be little doubt that the Allies would welcome a revolution in Greece which would dethrone King Constantine and replace the present neutralist cabinet by a provisional government under Venizelos pledged to open alliance with the Western powers. But such a revolution does not appear likely. Besides the fact that fully half the Greek people seems to be neutralist in sentiment, the army is evidently loyal to the King. Ever since the late Balkan Wars a new element has entered into Greek politics—monarchical feeling. Before 1912 the Greeks displayed no special affection for their dynasty, and in the troubles of 1909 the royal family came near being driven from the country. But Constantine's brilliant campaigns against the Turks and Bulgars awakened a genuine love among the masses of the people and made him the army's idol. Since the Greek General Staff has consistently advised the King not to enter the present war,

it is clear that Constantine has done nothing to alienate the army, however much he may have angered Venizelos and that leader's political following. And, of course, so long as the army remains loyal, revolution is almost unthinkable.

Short of some crass blunder on the part of the Central Powers, therefore, it seems probable that Greece will maintain her pathetic neutrality unless the Allies compel her to take sides. How Greece would act in face of an Allied ultimatum it is impossible to say. Very likely the Greeks themselves have no clear idea. Certainly, their position would be a dreadful one. Even a passive state of war with the Allies would spell absolute economic ruin, and since Greece does not quite feed herself it would also mean semi-starvation. Yet, even so, it is by no means certain that Hellas would bow her neck to the yoke. The Greeks are an intensely proud people with whom patriotism rises to the dignity of a religion. The long course of half-contemptuous bullying which the Allies have meted out to Greece has roused in very many Greek hearts a sullen hatred all the deeper for its very hopelessness. If called on to choose between death and what she deemed dishonor, Greece might prefer to die. One thing is certain, the Greek army has been getting steadily more anti-Ally. This is probably the reason why the Allied Powers have recently compelled the Greek government to demobilize half its army.

So stands Greece, encompassed about with darkness and menaced by dire perils; one of the most pathetic victims of the war. We who wish her well may hope for the best, but we cannot conceal from ourselves the stern fact that her immediate future appears gloomy in the extreme.

BULGARIA'S ATTITUDE

To cross the Hellenic frontier into Bulgaria is like passing from midnight into noon-day. Of course Bulgaria, like Greece, is suffering sorely from economic pressure, and the recent conquest of Serbia was a bloody affair which brought death and bereavement to numberless homes. Nevertheless, in their moral atmospheres the two nations are as far asunder as the poles. Whereas, Greece is plunged in hopelessness and fear, Bulgaria is thrilling with the intoxication of extremest victory. Bulgaria's history is that of a nation possessed by a fixed idea carried almost to the pitch of monomania. That idea was Bulgarian race-unity, embodied in the

determination to annex the Bulgar-peopled land of Macedonia. For Macedonia the Bulgars starved and pinched themselves almost forty years, for Macedonia they fought the two Balkan Wars, for Macedonia they openly declared themselves willing to hazard their race-life. How the cup was dashed from their lips at the Bucharest Congresses of 1913 all the world knows, but few persons realize the half-insane fury which then settled down in those morose, half-savage hearts. Forced to sit idly by and watch the hated Serb root out Macedonian Bulgarianism by one of the most ruthless persecutions known to history, their strong-man's agony grew, and grew, and knew no rest.

Then, in the twinkling of an eye, all was changed. A few short autumn weeks saw Macedonia, the promised land, wholly in their grasp, saw the hated Serb prostrate in the dust, saw Bulgarian armies pouring through the Albanian hills and halting only on the distant shores of the Adriatic Sea. Such triumphs this sober folk had not fashioned in its wildest dreams.

Of course the harvest is not yet secure. The Entente Powers have solemnly sworn to avenge their Serbian ally's downfall, and to visit upon Bulgaria a punishment which shall kill her hopes forever and virtually erase her name from the roster of the nations. But the Bulgars, canny reckoners that they are, have pondered the matter well, and hold the risk of national death preferable to acquiescence in permanent racial mutilation.

This is the best answer to the rumors afloat in the Entente press that, if things should go badly for the Central Powers, Ferdinand of Bulgaria would quit the Teutonic camp and make his peace with the Allies. For, brought to the acid test of present-day realities, such talk appears the veriest foolishness. Peace with the Allies would mean for Bulgaria the relinquishment of most of Macedonia to a restored and powerful Serbia. It would also mean Bulgarian acquiescence in a Muscovite annexation of Constantinople, with the consequent nipping of Bulgaria between these two aggrandized and vengeful Slav Powers.

Of course, so far as Czar Ferdinand is personally concerned, it is not at all impossible that if things looked black enough he might be willing to agree to even this state of things rather than risk the loss of his crown. He is an essentially Machiavellian person with strong selfish ambitions, and it is quite likely that he values his Sofia throne

above Macedonia. But, despite what is commonly believed, Ferdinand does not have the last word in these matters. The final arbiter is the Bulgarian people, a race of aggressively self-conscious, self-respecting freemen who know what they want and propose to keep what they have gained. Bulgaria's attitude respecting Macedonia is exactly that of a she-bear standing over her newly rescued cubs. She will face death itself rather than abandon her Macedonian children, and should Czar Ferdinand so much as suggest that sacrifice he would forfeit not only his throne but most probably his life as well. Since nobody knows this better than Ferdinand, and since the Allies do not show the least intention of recognizing the Bulgar title to Macedonia, all fine-spun theories anent Bulgaria's defection to the Entente camp in case of Teutonic reverses must appear the veriest moonshine.

One rather curious link in the chain binding the Bulgarians to the Central Powers is the simultaneous growth, in Bulgaria, Hungary, and Turkey alike, of the movement known as "Pan-Turanism." This sudden discovery by the Bulgarians of ethnic affinities with their Magyar and Osmanli neighbors may surprise us until we remember that the original Bulgarians were a horde of Asiatic nomads who, in the seventh century, conquered the primitive Slav tribes south of the Danube and settled down as masters. Of course, in time the conquerors fused so completely with their more numerous subjects that they quite lost their language and peculiar identity. Nevertheless, the strain was a potent one, for the old Bulgarians left behind them much more than their name. They stamped upon the stock many distinctive traits which placed the new Bulgarians emphatically apart in the category of "Slav" peoples, particularly as regards the really pure-blooded Slav Serbs to the west. This is one of the great reasons which made the Bulgarians so restive under Russian tutelage after the Russo-Turkish War of 1877, and so insistent upon their peculiar race-identity ever since.

The complete breach with both Serbia and Russia after the second Balkan War of 1913 has enormously emphasized this tendency. Virtually excommunicated from the Slav world by both those nations, the Bulgars have answered with characteristic defiance by boldly renouncing the title of "Slav," and glorifying in their remote Asiatic ancestry. When they remembered that these ancestors belonged to the same "Turanian" race-stock,

as did the primitive Magyars and Ottoman Turks, it is not strange that many Bulgarian intellectuals are to-day emphasizing this blood relationship with their present allies to north and south in a common struggle against a common foe.

As regards Bulgaria's present position in the European War, therefore, we may confidently align her solidly with the Central Powers, and so far as present indications show, that alignment can be regarded as a fixed quantity.

RUMANIA'S NEUTRALITY

Turning now to the third primary Balkan factor, Rumania, we find a condition of things totally different from that prevailing in either Bulgaria or Greece. Of course, Rumania, like Greece, is still maintaining neutrality, and like Greece, again, is subject to pressure from both the warring coalitions, but this pressure is so much less acute, and domestic conditions are so dissimilar that the situations of the two countries are not at all the same.

As regards external pressure, whereas Greece is virtually a long, jagged peninsula completely at the mercy of the Allies' seapower, Rumania is a compact inland block, impervious to the Entente's naval strength. In fact, the Central Powers can exert much greater pressure upon her than can the Allies, for Russia is the only Entente Power which touches Rumania, whereas the Central Powers, through their uninterrupted geographical unity, could throw their combined weight in Rumania's direction if they so desired. At the same time, Rumania's strategic position is so important, and her army so large, that neither side could afford to drive her wantonly into the opposite camp. Lastly, the ultimate economic argument—starvation, which might be so effectively employed against Greece, cannot be used against Rumania, since Rumania is not only self-feeding, but is a large exporter of cereals.

Accordingly, such pressure as has been put upon Rumania thus far has been not so much bullying as blandishment. And both sides have highly tempting arguments. Rumania, like the other Balkan States, is far from having achieved her racial unity. Political Rumania contains only some eight million inhabitants, whereas the Rumanian race numbers nearly fourteen millions. The "unredeemed" Rumanians are divided between Austria-Hungary and Russia, and Rumania would dearly love to redeem all of them, but since Austria-Hungary and Russia are on

different sides in the present war, Rumania would have to ally herself with one of these powers in order to redeem the Rumanians belonging to the other. The problem is, however, complicated by the disagreeable fact that if Rumania should be so unlucky as to pick the wrong side, the winner would probably overrun even the present Rumania and do away with it altogether.

Thus torn between her hopes and fears, Rumania has prudently kept clear of all "entangling alliances" whatsoever, narrowly watching for the moment when the outcome of the war should become so certain that she could venture to "rush to the victor's aid" and thus earn an easy reward. This mood has been best exemplified in the attitude of her present premier, John Bratiano. A shrewd, cryptic personality, he has bided his time with exemplary patience, and has absolutely refused to be "drawn." His policy of "watchful waiting" has, however, been maintained only with great difficulty on account of the excessive turbulence of Rumanian domestic politics.

Rumanian home politics are not only an uncertain, but also a peculiar quantity. It used to be said that "Paris was France." That is no longer so, but it is absolutely true that, politically speaking, Bucharest is Rumania. This gay capital, proudly hailing itself as the Paris of the Near East, is an islet of over-refined Western civilization set in an ocean of mediæval rusticity. The Rumanian social edifice is in a decidedly unhealthy condition. At the top is a luxurious aristocracy with vast landed estates; below there is little or nothing save a vast mass of backward, poverty-stricken peasants. There is no middle class worth speaking of, unless we may dignify with that name a mushroom growth of politicians and professional men sprung up during Rumania's half-century of independent political existence. The result is that everybody who is or aspires to be anybody goes straight to Bucharest, which thus absorbs the whole birth and brains of the country. Thus the benighted countryside leaves such abstruse questions as foreign politics to Bucharest, and, conversely, Bucharest has an almost incredible amount of politics.

To traverse the thorny thicket of Bucharest politics would consume an entire article in itself. Suffice it to say that it is as varied as it is intense. Besides the irreconcilable patriotic aspirations previously described, the average Rumanian experiences a most complicated set of emotions every time he considers the different combatants in the present

struggle. He loves France, esteems Germany, hates Hungary, and abhors Russia. To make confusion worse confounded, the warring coalitions have not confined their rival propagandas to intellectual and emotional appeals, but have deluged Bucharest with "arguments" of a more concrete kind, to which Rumanian politicians are said to have unusually responsive palms. The result of all this is the presence of a violent pro-Ally faction, under the leadership of Mr. Take Jonescu, and an equally violent pro-Teutonic faction headed by Messrs. Carp and Marghiloman. Both these factions have done their best to sweep Rumania into the war on their particular side.

But, between the extremists sits the solid figure of John Bratiano, and thus far his appeals for "watchful waiting" have prevailed. Besides reasons of military exigency and foreign policy, he possesses one argument purely domestic in character, yet decidedly trenchant in kind. The Rumanian yokel is waking up and demanding a larger share of the good things of this world. A few years ago he put his demands in the shape of a dreadful peasant rising which brought Rumania within a hair's-breadth of anarchy. The rising was put down, but the frightened upper classes hastened to promise speedy social reform. The simultaneous outbreak of a whole series of Balkan crises made this reform for the moment impossible owing to the exigencies of foreign policy, and the Rumanian peasant was sensible and patriotic enough to recognize the facts and await quieter times. But, though patient, he has not forgotten, and he does not intend to see social reform indefinitely postponed through a rash policy of foreign adventure.

This is the silent force which more than anything else nerves John Bratiano's arm in quieting the violence of extremist politicians and in braving the shouting of the Bucharest mob. Of course, so great is the prestige of the capital that were either of the extremist factions to seize control of the government the country might docilely follow its lead. Nevertheless, Bratiano seems to-day still firm in the saddle, and so long as he retains his grip, and the issue of the war remains anything like in doubt, Rumania will probably continue her neutral attitude.

Thus the Balkans at the moment when the European combatants are girding up their loins for the terrific grapple of the summer's campaign: outwardly calm, in reality seething with the complex interplay of elemental forces which a single blow may shatter.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

AN ECONOMIC ENTENTE AMONG THE ALLIES

AMONG both belligerent and neutral nations the political question which looms largest on the horizon is that of the tariff. Undoubtedly this will be one of the prime issues between the Republican and Democratic parties in the coming Presidential election. We have already given some account in these pages of the proposed defensive and offensive tariff league of the Central Powers after the war. The other side of the shield comes to view in a significant article appearing in the May number of *La Revue* (Paris).

This is, of course, intended to rouse French manufacturers to their perils and their needs, but it is of interest also to every American firm having dealings with foreign countries.

That Americans are becoming conscious of the pressing importance of our attitude towards the tariff is, indeed, evidenced by two developments of the past month. One is President Wilson's message concerning an "anti-dumping" tariff law to protect our industries from disastrous competition on the resumption of the activities of peace in the depleted belligerent countries. The other is the bill introduced in Congress by Representative Bailey, of Pennsylvania, to establish a Pan-American trade league, providing that after July, 1916, we will admit free the products of any country in "the two Americas" which will admit our own products free. "By passing this bill," says the well-known editor, Herbert Quick, "Congress may establish a great trade kingdom for the two Americas, which would be based on friendship and amity . . ."

It is precisely such an economic entente that the writer in *La Revue* urges upon the Allies in the article from which we abstract the following paragraphs:

At its last congress the French Socialist party

declared that it did not desire the economic ruin of the Central Empires. This idealistic affirmation was a deplorable error. It is obvious, in fact, that if Germany can reconquer, after a brief period, the place in the world which she held before the war, she will support and fortify her economic expansion by her military power. Consequently this dangerous militarism, combated for so many reasons and with such admirable energy by the proletariat, will soon revive stronger than ever.

After a truce of a few years, caused by the general exhaustion, the struggle will be renewed with even greater violence, but we must not merely admit this possibility, we must interdict even the simple hypothesis of such a thing.

In the treaty of peace it will not suffice to exact the restitution of Alsace, Lorraine, Trente, Trieste, and the other regions unjustly annexed. It will not suffice to demand the evacuation of Belgium, of Serbia, of Montenegro, and of the other countries invaded and oppressed. It will not suffice to reestablish the autonomy of Poland, Bohemia, and the other nations which have been reduced to a sort of slavery. It is needful to demand imperiously economic advantages such as may guarantee the faithful execution of treaties, and prevent forever any new criminal attempt on the part of our enemies.

After this introduction, the author, Mr. B. Sancholle-Heuraux, proceeds to recommend an immediate preparation of the ground for the formation of an economic entente among the Allied Powers, saying that the Germans, who feel that they are already vanquished in the field of arms, well understand that it is only by economic struggle that they can hope to reconquer the world.

Their emissaries circulate among their allies, among the neutrals, and even among their enemies, preparing the bases of a future customs league. Count Andrassy already proposes an immense *Zollverein* comprising the Central Empires, the countries they believe themselves to have conquered, and the Balkans, which will enter into victorious conflict against the nations of the *Entente*. As *Le Matin* says: They will exert all their industrial power to assure themselves of commercial empire, industrial

empire, banking empire—in short *Empire*.

The *Deutsche Rundschau* declares not without reason that the economic organization of the Central Empires far surpasses in importance the question of annexations from the point of view of possible results. We may equally affirm that the economic results from a union of the Allies and the countries which may join them, will far surpass the moral, financial, and political benefits of victory.

We must needs then prepare ourselves now and without loss of time. France and its Allies, at the end of this immense war, must no longer be tributary to Germany. Innumerable have been the faults committed in the past. . . . The lesson has been severe—may it be profitable! To fall back into the same errors would be unpardonable, would be criminal, for it would mean after a brief interval, a new war . . . even more terrible.

It is true that future commercial treaties are already being discussed, and a dangerous trend seems to prevail, which may be thus defined: Protection among the Allies with the doctrine of the most favored nation, and Draconian protection against the Central Empires; in other words, intestine war among the Allies, a common fight against Germany. This formula . . . would be a fatal error, for, opposed to the Germanic Customs League, it would end in indubitable and disastrous economic defeat. Against the future German *Zollverein* one victorious path alone is open to the Allies, that of Free Trade. . . .

To obtain this result treaties of commerce are not sufficient. It is necessary to have a loyal *entente* between the industrials, the merchants, and the agriculturists of the friendly countries. Each nation must resolve to accomplish profound modifications in industry, commerce, and culture, with the object of aiding each other and never injuring each other. These changes and improvements must be studied in common accord by those interested; they should discuss them, propose them to their governments, and impose their determined will to these ends, basing it on convincing economic reasons and accomplished facts.

The foregoing remarks are of general interest, both to Allied and neutral Powers. The next section of this article is entitled "Latin Organization," and deals specifically with the methods of forming a close reciprocity between France and Italy. The author quotes Italian writers as to the importance of establishing mutually favorable relations between the two countries—thus opposing a Latin union to a Teutonic union. Such relations, it is believed, may be established in mining interests, in agricultural interests, in manufacturing, and in labor interests. It is advised also that a financial union be formed to support the primary economic union, and especially to relieve Italy from pressure by Berlin bankers.

The third and fourth sections of this timely article are devoted to an arraignment of French manufacturers and merchants for their lax and unenterprising methods towards extending their foreign trade, and the writer urges the adoption of both commercial and governmental reforms in words which may well be taken to heart by American firms anxious to develop their foreign relations. Incidentally, he lauds the German methods of procedure and advises emulation of these.

In speaking of the governmental reforms necessary, the writer scores French consuls rather severely and gives a contrasting picture in favor of German efficiency, based on a report made by a French officer who was charged at the beginning of the war with seizing the archives of a German consulate in Morocco.

THE SHIPPING CRISIS IN EUROPE

IT is a well-worn statement that the markets of the whole world are open to the Entente Allies and to the neutral countries of Europe, while the Teutonic powers are cut off from foreign commerce. This is a statement which should be made only with important qualifications. The cost of ocean transportation is increasing by leaps and bounds. The results of this increase, felt throughout Europe, are becoming almost as serious as those of a blockade. This startling and unprecedented situation, especially as it affects France, is analyzed in an article by M. Auguste Pawlowski, contributed to *La Nature* (Paris).

The rapid increase in freight charges has, the author tells us, sometimes been attributed

to the machinations of speculators, but this is largely a fallacy. It is really due to several causes. In the first place, the tonnage of ships engaged in international trade has been very sensibly reduced since the war began by (1) requisitions and (2) "accidents" at sea. Each of the great French steamship lines has been obliged to turn over to the state a considerable part of its fleet; more than half in some cases. It is estimated that about 40 per cent. of the total tonnage of the French merchant marine has been thus diverted to the use of the government. Marine disasters from August, 1914, to the end of 1915 involved a loss to French shipping of fifty-three vessels, aggregating 85,325 tons. Lastly, French vessels amounting to 16,078

tons are blockaded in foreign ports, especially in the Levant.

A similar situation exists in Great Britain and Italy. The British Government has requisitioned 800 ships of 1000 tons and over, while forty-two British ships are held in hostile ports and seventy-eight in the Baltic and Black seas. It has been estimated that of 50,000,000 tons of shipping available throughout the world in the middle of 1914, more than 15,000,000 have been withdrawn; viz., 8,000,000 by government requisition in France, Great Britain, and Italy; 6,000,000 by the immobilization of German and Austrian shipping; and 1,000,000 by disasters at sea.

Thus, even if the demand for transportation facilities had remained constant, freight charges would have been augmented; but the fact is that imports have greatly increased. In France imports were 50 per cent. greater in 1915 than in 1913. Unfortunately the export trade has, meanwhile, fallen off. The result is that shipping facilities can be fully used only in one direction. In 1914 23 per cent. of the vessels visiting French ports departed in ballast, while in 1915 the proportion had risen to 58 per cent. Hence freight charges on imports tend to be based on the expense of the double voyage, to and from the foreign port. The same situation exists in railway traffic; trains running loaded to the interior and returning empty to the seaports.

Here we have three principal causes for the extraordinary rise in freights, but there

are others. The expenses of navigation have increased immensely. At the port of Marseilles the price of coal was 28 francs a ton in 1914; it is now 140 francs. The cost of lubricating oils has doubled. Food for the crew costs half again as much as before the war. Rates of marine insurance have risen on account of new perils to navigation in the shape of submarines and mines. Repairs are difficult to obtain. Above all, on account of the scarcity of labor and the demands made upon shipyards by the various governments, the price of ships has soared to an extraordinary level. According to the British shipping journal *Fair Play*, a cargo steamer of 7500 tons, which in 1910 could be bought for 36,500 pounds sterling, now commands about four times that amount.

Finally, in consequence of the scarcity of labor and of railway rolling stock, the work of loading and discharging cargo is attended by serious delays, entailing heavy demurrage charges and an extraordinary congestion of the ports. At Dieppe alone, during the first half of 1915, no less than 35,000 to 40,000 francs a day was paid for demurrage. It is believed that the total expense at French ports under this head will amount to 725,000,000 francs a year.

All these circumstances have conspired to bring about a veritable crisis in freights. From Australia, India, and America the transportation charges to Europe have doubled and trebled. The charge for transporting a ton of coal from Wales to Marseilles is ten times the rate prevailing before the war.

HOUSTON—AN INLAND SEAPORT

HOUSTON, Texas, is situated fifty miles inland from the Gulf of Mexico, on an insignificant stream known as Buffalo Bayou. Yet more than forty years ago a line of steamers and sailing vessels was in operation between Houston and New York City. The dredging of a channel 100 feet wide and twelve feet deep through the waters connecting Houston with the Gulf—viz., Lower and Upper Galveston Bay, San Jacinto Bay and River, and Buffalo Bayou—was begun in 1871. For several years after this waterway was opened many vessels plied between Houston and the outside world, but with the increasing size and draft of ocean shipping this traffic gradually died out. In 1899 plans were made for a twenty-five-foot channel, but the

work of dredging it was carried on in a piecemeal and half-hearted way for years. Finally, in 1910, the citizens of Harris County, in which Houston is situated, proposed to the Rivers and Harbors Committee in Congress to contribute half the funds needed to finish the work, provided Congress would appropriate the rest and take measures to ensure prompt completion. The proposal was accepted, work was begun in 1912, and in the autumn of 1914 the Houston Ship Channel was announced as an accomplished fact.

This was, however, only the first step in great undertakings which will ultimately, it is believed, make Houston the leading Gulf port. More recent work, and the plans for the future, are reviewed in the *Engineering*

AMERICA'S NEW INDUSTRIES

THE European war has affected American industries in two ways. In the first place, we have been called upon to supply the Old World to an unprecedented extent with things that it is either using in greater quantities or producing in smaller quantities, or both, than in normal times. In the second place, we have been forced to utilize our own resources and our ingenuity in producing things at home that we formerly wholly or largely imported from Europe. It is in the latter respect that our industries have undergone the most remarkable metamorphoses. Moreover, while some of the resultant changes may not outlast the war, many will undoubtedly be permanent.

Dr. Edward Ewing Pratt, Chief of the United States Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, writes in the *Scientific American* concerning "some of the fields into which American manufacturers have been forced" by the temporary conditions of the war, and which they have found so congenial and profitable that they are not likely to abandon them with the return of peace.

These new industries have resulted either because certain lines of goods formerly received from the Central Powers and Belgium have been cut off altogether or because accustomed supplies from the Allied countries have been greatly reduced by the lack of ships. In either case Americans are learning to manufacture goods that were formerly bought abroad, and this experience will undoubtedly, in the long run, be of more real benefit to the country than the temporary munitions business.

Our principal purchases from Germany, in the order of their value, have been hides and furs, cotton manufactures, dyes and chemicals, machinery and other manufactures of iron and steel, potash, pottery, silk and silk manufactures, toys, glacé leather and glacé leather gloves, rubber, paper and paper manufactures, and salt. Of these classes there are several of which Germany has had a practical monopoly—such as dyes and certain chemicals, potash, and toys—and the effect of cutting off some of these was immediate and serious. The principal problems we have now before us are the more complete utilization of the coal tar obtained in the coking industry and a method of manufacturing potash from one or more of our potash-bearing materials.

It is especially interesting to learn that "the progress made by our dye-makers has exceeded the expectations of all well-informed persons."

The recovery of coal-tar "crudes" from the coke-oven by-products has now been so developed that the output is more than sufficient to cover the needs of a national color industry. Two

years ago the annual output of "crudes," i.e., benzol, toluol, naphthaline, and phenol, was about 14,375 tons. To-day the estimated output is at the rate of 135,000 tons a year. Some 33 companies are now occupied with the manufacture of coal-tar intermediates. The leading production is aniline, of which the output for 1916 will exceed 15,000 tons. Over 3,000 tons of the other intermediates are produced by the same companies. Large additional amounts are made in the works of companies directly engaged in manufacturing colors and making their own intermediates. The number of companies manufacturing finished dyes has increased from six in 1914 to twenty-four in 1916, although it should be borne in mind that some of these are small companies devoted largely to experimental work. Finished dyes are now being produced at the rate of 15,000 tons annually.

In which connection the *Scientific American* makes the significant editorial comment that "a dye factory may be changed within a week, or ten days into a factory for the production of high explosives." Hence the development of the dye industry fits in with "preparedness."

Moreover, the growth of the natural dyestuff industry as a result of the color shortage has been very interesting. The Bureau of Census reports a domestic output of such dyes of \$1,866,000 in 1914, an increase of 32 per cent. as compared to 1909. At the start of the war American extract works were fortunately in a position to expand rapidly and were handicapped only by the difficulty in getting raw material from the West Indies and elsewhere as quickly as it was wanted. The principal increase has been in logwood extract, quercitron, fustic, cutch, and archil. At the same time the production of osage-orange extract on a commercial scale has been established, and this material is now available for the tanning, textile, paper, and other industries. It is being used successfully in dyeing paper. The study of osage-orange as a dyewood was begun by the United States Forest Service about three and a half years ago, and was the result of an investigation of the utilization of the mill waste of this Western wood. It is not at all likely that natural dyestuffs will ever again be discarded to the extent they had been before the war started.

The war cut off the supply of carbolic acid from Germany, but American ingenuity soon renewed our stock of this indispensable coal-tar product, though the price is still high. In order that our coal-tar industry may be a well-balanced one there are a great many other coal-tar derivatives, formerly obtained almost entirely from Germany, to which our manufacturers must turn their attention, and they have already begun to occupy these important fields.

Of American sources of potash we have

heard much recently, but the author tells us that "potash as a fertilizer is about as scarce now as at any time since the war started." On the other hand,

One other American industry has been greatly stimulated by the blockade of German ports—the manufacture of dolls and toys. The rush to get into the toy business when the war broke had some aspects almost as comic as the most comic of the funny toys and I suppose there are now some sadder and wiser citizens as the result. A number of good solid companies have made a fine start, however, and many of the older companies are established on a scale they never dreamed of before. There is one novelty company in New York occupying all of a five-story building that was not in existence a year ago, and there are dozens of other instances of firms that have grown too large for their old quarters. I have talked to a number of the successful manufacturers, and their opinion seems to be that the most promising field is the manufacture of typical American toys. These are being brought to a high degree of perfection and, even more important, into a high degree of public favor.

American toys are even finding a market in England, Australia, and South America.

Dr. Pratt deals at length with a great many other new and promising American industries of which we have space to mention only two:

A well-known St. Louis fur concern is already

dressing and dyeing 10,000 sealskins, using a method formerly employed only in England, and is expanding its plant. This is one result of an agitation for an American fur industry that began soon after the war started. The United States is the largest producer of raw sealskins in the world, and it is also the largest consumer of finished seal furs. This would seem to make it natural that it should sell its own sealskins and dress and dye its own furs. It never has, however. We have in the past sent our raw sealskins to London, paid London for dressing and dyeing them, and brought them back, paying duty double and transportation charges. This added 52 per cent to the price of the raw skins. The Department of Commerce took the first step to end this when it held the first sale of raw sealskins ever held in this country. It was a success, and has led to the permanent establishment in America of a new industry. In the last year there have been several successful fur sales in this country, in St. Louis and in New York.

* * *

Probably no feature of our recent development has been more satisfying than the growth in the shipbuilding industry. Certainly there has never been a time when tonnage was more needed, and American tonnage especially. During the first three months of 1916 American shipyards for the first time in many years took a lead over British yards. For the three months ended March 31, American yards launched 173 merchant vessels of 96,464 gross tons while, according to Lloyd's shipbuilding returns, British yards launched sixty-nine vessels of 80,561 gross tons; and merchant ships now building or under contract in American yards are approximating the British output for the future.

THE LYONS BOOK FAIR AND THE "WEEK OF FRENCH CULTURE"

DURING the final week of April a "fair" or exposition of books was opened at Lyons under the auspices and upon the initiative of the Mayor of Lyons, one of the most remarkable among the brilliant men who are bending their energies to the service of France in her hour of need. Coincidentally there was held a "Week of French Culture," whose purpose is self-explanatory, in view of the realms that have been written about German Kultur. While the two events were independent, though synchronous, they naturally attracted the same classes, including "book-men," of all sorts, whether publishers, editors, writers, or dealers.

The "Week of French Culture," we learn from *Le Correspondant*, was inaugurated by a meeting on April 23d in which the French Government was represented by M. Dalimier, Under-Secretary of Beaux Arts, the

Society of Men of Letters by M. Decourcelle, the Society of Dramatic Authors by M. Haraucourt, and the French Academy by M. Maurice Barrès.

M. Decourcelle discussed the French publishing trade in comparison with that of other countries, particularly Germany, and treated his hearers, many of whom doubtless were directly interested, to some searching criticism.

French production for 1913 was 9000 volumes, that of Germany 36,000. . . . We may say that our 9000 are worth as much as their 36,000. . . . But in fact a notable part of their production was destined for our use, and we had need of them. In two and one-half years, from 1912 until the war, France imported from Germany nineteen million things in print. This was the consequence of the Treaty of Frankfurt and of our own apathy. The treaty stipulated that all printed matter, book, journal, brochure, periodical, catalogue, almanac, should have free entry into France. It is well known that two-thirds

of our fashion journals—apparently our own Paris specialty—are in the hands of German and Austrian firms, some of which handle five or six, rivals ostensibly, but actually lending each other the most profitable support.

The speaker naturally found these amazing facts very irritating under the present circumstances. However, Germany is not the only nation ahead of France in publishing matters. The speaker continued:

England has an enormous publishing trade, unparalleled scientific publications, and numerous popular publications, which are varied, attractive, and constantly renewed. The United States is developing daily her libraries, and Italy produces really remarkable publications at present, with their riches of literature and innate taste for beautiful presentation. . . . Certain important classic works do not exist among us except in *éditions de luxe*. Students who need to know them are obliged to consult them in the libraries; if they wish to study them at home, only the German edition, both cheap and convenient to handle, is to be obtained. . . . In the official program of examinations there is more than one book which is indicated to contestants in the Leipzig editions.

To M. Maurice Barrès there fell the pious task of apostrophizing the young writers who have fallen in the war, no less than 300 of them, including some of much talent; a circumstance that emphasizes all too poignantly the criminal wastefulness of humanity's best assets which characterizes the present conflict. One of the speaker's points is worth noting—it is to the effect that during the past two years very few *chef d'œuvres* have been produced by civilians, but hundreds by soldiers in their letters and reflections characterized by the utmost simplicity. "What displays more purity of design," he asks, "than the *Lettres* of Léo Latil or *La Toussaint dans les Tranchées* of Marcel Drouet?"

What was perhaps the most notable address of the week, however, was made by Guglielmo Ferrero, the Italian historian who is so well known in the United States, on the subject of "The Latin Genius." In comparing the contributions to human progress of the Teutonic and the Latin races Mr. Ferrero said that Germany had deified productive labor, and in a single moment was sterilizing it.

She was conquering the world peacefully by money. What more did she want. The question recalls the energetic words of Kipling. "In twenty years Germany would have owned the world—a rotten world, but hers." She wanted to do better. She wanted to conquer it still alive and within a few weeks.

The error of Germany was her exalted optimism, based on forces of quantity and not of quality, confounding expansion with greatness. What were the conditions that permitted her to develop this dream and bring it to the brink of reality? It was because the Latin genius, the genius of limitation and of order, was no longer managing Europe. Since the accomplishment of the great moral revolution which has declared that human nature is fundamentally good and constantly perfectible provided its instincts are allowed freedom of development, a world of liberty and of wealth has been delivered into the hands of modern nations—but a confused world. The Germanic genius has found itself at home therein, but the Latin genius has found itself somewhat out of place.

Germany appears to be the country of order. But it is the order of the policeman and of the philosopher. Essential order is not found in Germany. And if one seeks it . . . it is in France. She alone followed the Roman lessons and preserved them amid whatever adventures and apparent disorder.

Finally the celebrated historian declared that if it is not this ideal which is established by peace when it arrives, *i.e.*, an ideal of proportion and of limitation, Europe will advance towards a sort of gigantic suicide.

As regards the Book Fair held in Lyons in this same week, its ideals were not only expository, but constructive. Thirty-one publishing houses of Paris were represented, besides others from Lyons and from Lausanne. One of the most interesting exhibits was that of the Vaughan Press for printing Braille type for the blind. The admirable feature of these is that "anyone can do the printing." The type is set with ordinary characters, but each of these bears on its reverse side the equivalent of the letter in Braille points. The printing is done on damp paper and leaves the Braille characters in a relief which does not flatten out when the paper is dried. Since the presses cost only \$50 and an experienced person can print a page in a quarter of an hour, this is obviously an inestimable boon to the blind, among whom are so many thousand victims of the war.

The photographic and moving-picture sections of the army exhibited some striking photographs and films. But the most fruitful achievement of the Book Fair was a small "technical congress" to promote a gathering called "The Congress of the Book," which it is purposed to hold at Paris next July, and to serve as a nucleus for a "Committee of the Book" whose office it shall be to use books as instruments for the spread of French culture. The objects of this committee are thus formulated:

To propagate in foreign lands, principally by means of books, French thought in its different manifestations—literary, scientific, artistic—and to make foreign masterpieces better known in our own land, is our aim.

Practically, the committee proposes:

A. To create at Paris a bureau of information where authors and publishers may keep themselves informed of the interests of readers in foreign countries.

B. To improve French bibliographies so as to better present to strangers the resources of the French publishing trade from the point of view of their respective needs (periodical catalogues of French books on divers specialties, lists of

books chosen for readers of various ages, conditions, etc.).

C. To have competent persons investigate the features in which French publishing is lacking, especially from the foreigner's point of view, and to create, under the control of special commissions, collections of popular works in science, literature, and art, to be published either in French or in foreign languages, when there is occasion.

D. Finally, if feasible, to found at Paris a Museum of the Book, which shall assemble at once the most beautiful models of ancient technique and the latest novelties in modern technique.

RUNNING RECORDS ANALYZED

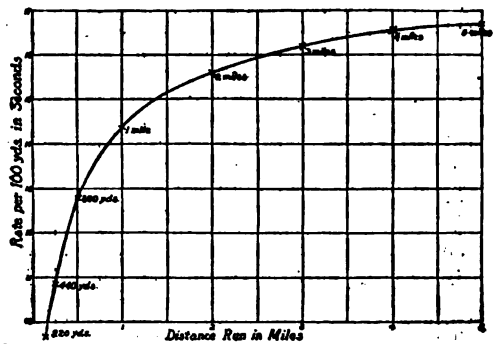
HOW long may an athletic mark be expected to stand on the record books? How far, on the other hand, can the breaking of records continue? For many years these unanswerable questions have been raised by students of sports.

In an endeavor to establish a basis for careful consideration, a writer in the *Scientific Monthly*—Mr. George P. Meade, of Cardenas, Cuba—has made an analytical study of some athletic records. Improvement in technique or method may affect such records as the high jump and the pole vault, while changes in apparatus may affect others such as the hammer-throw; therefore Mr. Meade selects running races for his study.

In the standard events—100-yard, 220-yard, and 440-yard dashes, the half-mile, mile, two-mile, and five-mile runs—there has been constant world-wide competition for many years. The world's best records for these distances, together with a comparison of speeds, are set forth in the following table:

Distance	Time (Seconds)	Holder	Rate per 100 Yards (Seconds)
100 yards	9 3/5	Kelly, 1906	9.60
220 yards	21 1/5	Wefers, 1896	9.59
440 yards	47 4/5	Long, 1900	10.86
880 yards	1:52 1/2	Meredith, 1912	12.79
One mile	4:12 3/5	Taber, 1915	14.35
Two miles	9:09 3/5	Shrubb, 1904	15.60
Three miles	14:17 3/5	Shrubb, 1903	16.22
Four miles	19:23 2/5	Shrubb, 1904	16.52
Five miles	24:33 2/5	Shrubb, 1904	16.73

A study of this table shows that for the 100-yard dash and the 220-yard dash the rate is practically identical. Here the fatigue in running the longer distance is offset by the greater effect of the delay at the start on the rate of the shorter dash. Beginning with the 220-yard dash, however, the rates increase for each succeeding distance until



CURVE REPRESENTING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN RATE OF SPEED AND DISTANCE COVERED

(The smoothness of the curve is striking, indicating so definite a relationship between the various records as to render improbable a marked change in any record)

in a five-mile race the runner averages little better than half the speed attained in a 220-yard (one-eighth mile) dash.

Amateur athletic records, Mr. Meade maintains, have every right to consideration as scientific data. Races are timed by at least three skilled timers; distances are accurately surveyed and are remeasured in case a claim for a record is to be made; strict rules are observed to prevent mistake or fraud at the start and finish, and unusual circumstances (such as favoring winds) are noted by judges or referee. Finally, the performance is investigated by a committee of the national athletic board of the country in which the race was run, and every circumstance which might affect the validity of the record is discussed before the record is sanctioned.

So many thousands of men have striven to break records in the standard events that they may be taken as closely approximating the best which man can do, rather than as representing the best which men have been able to do so far.

THE REAL BASIS OF GERMAN PROWESS

SPECIAL interest attaches to an article by Field Marshal von der Goltz, appearing in a late issue of the *Deutsche Revue*, owing to his recent death. An eminent strategist and commander, he was likewise a prolific military writer. Having fought in the Austrian campaign and the Franco-Prussian War, he was sent to Turkey in 1883 to reorganize the Turkish army, remaining there thirteen years. In the present war he was appointed Military Governor of Belgium, then ordered to Turkey, where he occupied most important posts. The strong Turkish defense of the Gallipoli peninsula was due to his efforts. About a year ago he assumed command of the First Turkish Army.

Coming from so high a source, von der Goltz's views regarding the martial spirit of Germany and the desirability of maintaining that spirit are particularly noteworthy. He says in part:

Frederick the Great withstood all Europe and remained master of Silesia. Germany to-day is wrestling with almost the entire world. Her battle-front extends from the North Sea to Macedonia—her officers are stationed in Bagdad as well as in Flanders. We all know what it signifies that we have not only held our own against vastly superior forces, but have succeeded in occupying extensive regions of the enemy's territory; while our allies will bear witness to the essential service rendered by the German troops in the victories in the Carpathians in Serbia, and the Dardanelles. Even Italy's treachery and the well-nigh inimical commercial policy of the United States have been powerless to affect this superiority in any way.

What are the fundamental elements of such a gigantic power of resistance? One cannot point to a preponderance of numbers for we are outnumbered by our enemies. Besides, it would only be shifting the question. For what makes it possible for us to muster and maintain armies amounting into millions?

Is it the splendid organization?—then we must ask again who were our teachers. Technical skill and the industries have helped us. But who enlisted all their forces without any difficulty in the service of the State? What weird magic power enabled our nation to raise so many billions—a phenomenon unexampled in history? . . .

Our old Kaiser William, referring to the signal victories of his armies, once observed: "And we owe all this to old Boyen."

And, indeed, Boyen collaborated with Schornstein, the creator of universal military service, perfected his army reforms, and laid the foundations of our present martial power. The German military strength of 1914-15 is based upon the Prussian defensive organization created at



THE LATE FIELD MARSHAL VON DER GOLTZ

the time of the war of liberation. All that does not suffice, however, to explain the stupendous phenomenon of the present development of strength. Without detracting from the work of Scharnhorst and Boyen, we must look upon it as but part of a more comprehensive whole. The *real* foundations of German military strength are composed of more than one cornerstone.

The writer points out that all the great events in history are traceable to great *personalities*. Ideas and powers generated in a great mind are the driving forces in the development of mankind. Who can doubt, he asks, that the personal moment in the gradual development of German prowess is to be traced to the Princes of the Hohenzollern dynasty. He dilates upon the various rulers of that House in turn to demonstrate his contention, winding up with the assertion that all the world knows that William II must be credited with enabling his people to face their enemies well-equipped, as well as with the development of the

German navy. But beyond such outward manifestations of their influence, the Prussian rulers have by their conscientious, steadfast devotion to duty, their high ideals, their strength of will, been an inspiring example to their people.

But next to personalities [the writer continues] it is *moral ideas* which make a nation great and strong. And what idea holds as commanding a place in Prussian and modern German history in general, as the idea of *duty*? Already the first Hohenzollern termed himself "God's viceroy on the throne," and that conception is peculiar to all the Hohenzollerns. From the time of the Great Elector that idea has constituted the ruling impulse of officers and officials. Natural, personal interests occupy, as a rule, the foremost place among men everywhere. It has not always been easy to educate the people to a different standard of life, particularly as the conception of the State gained only gradual comprehension.

The nobility of Prussia learned under Frederick the Great's father to regard military service as an honor, and their absolute devotion to King and country has again been splendidly demonstrated—people in other stations of life sharing to-day that quality with them.

The spirit of discipline and order could not fail to influence every class of the nation. The sense of faithful devotion to duty was aroused everywhere. Inspired by that ideal, all economic or political egotism is eliminated. Above every consideration of

utility, above the State, yea, above the King himself, there is an absolute law, to obey which is a matter of course to every free-man. That law is duty: just because that law is wholly unconditioned does it free a man from every other subjection. Many may regard it a mere "empty form" or a pale vision, and yet that idea, realized in the spirit of the German army, has acquired a momentous influence.

Combined with that military sense of duty is the *martial spirit*, which, nurtured first in the Prussian people, has become a common German possession. It is as little comprehended by our enemies as the idea of duty. For if they look upon obedience as servile, they interpret a martial spirit as a thirst for conquest or a desire to stir up strife in the world. But a martial spirit has no connection with either. No Prussian King has oppressed or ill-treated his subjects, even though he demanded obedience; none has sought war, even though he could conduct it valiantly. But, in truth, an instinctive readiness and courage to wield the sword, if need be, with zest and skill is indispensable to the strength of the German nation. A dreamy recluse may be forgiven for raving about "eternal peace." One who lives in the world of reality knows that wars are and always will be indispensable in the life of a nation. It is a virtue, therefore, for a people to maintain an appreciation of military efficiency, to feel pleasure in martial deeds and a soldier's life. It would be a misfortune for our people to lose that sense, and the present world war sees to it that soldiers continue to be the favorite toy of German boys, and that German women regard it as an honor that their husbands take part in the struggle for freedom and right.

SPAIN'S INTEREST IN THE WAR

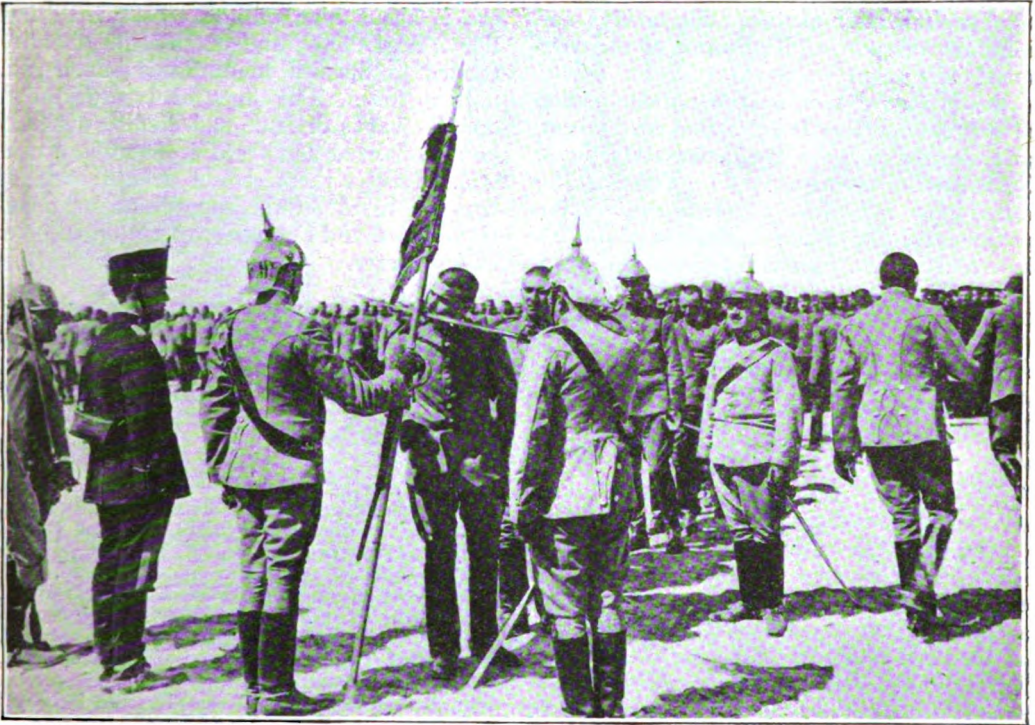
WILL the results of the war serve to arouse Spain from her long lethargy, and enable her to occupy the place among European lands to which patriotic Spaniards believe she is entitled? An attempt to answer this question is made by Señor Eloy Luis André in *Nuestro Tiempo*.

The writer does not seek to hide his lack of sympathy with England, but is in so far neutral that he willingly recognizes the respective claims of the Latin, German, and Slavic nations to their proportionate shares in the control of Europe's destinies. A good understanding between the continental powers and a restriction of England's influence to her own immediate interests would apparently represent in his opinion an ideal result of the terrible conflict. Of what most intimately concerns Spain, he says:

Essentially the European war is a political counter-revolution and an economic emancipation. If the German element conquers in this war, continental politics will undergo a profound transformation. We Spaniards are principally interested in what this change will signify for our national life, both in internal and foreign politics.

One thing that is not open to doubt is that whatever may be the result of the war, England's economic power will have been greatly diminished, and that in consequence of this Spain's national sovereignty, its enslaving chains being broken, will have freedom of action both within and outside of Spain, unless we should be thoughtless enough to forge new fetters for ourselves.

Those of us who regard Spanish decadence as a case of progressive paralysis, caused by a primary traumatic lesion in our organism, and then aggravated by a succession of psychopathic fear-suggestions, believe that the sole remedy is to be sought in processes of self-regeneration. The experimental consciousness of freedom from out-



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SWEARING IN SPANISH RECRUITS
(Ceremony of kissing the flag and sword)

side obstacles to our movements, will determine in the body politic a collective energy constituting the primal germ of a national volition. When Spain feels within herself the genuine desire to progress, she will no longer remain paralyzed. When the bird is no longer fascinated by the serpent, it realizes that it has wings and proceeds to use them. For us and for Europe this will signify emancipation from English imperialism.

In the new order of things, Señor André believes that the Mediterranean will cease to be an English highway, and if it enters into the sphere of action of the German peoples, the Mediterranean countries will be preserved from the danger of being rendered subordinate to England in their maritime development, or of being menaced by Slavic ambitions. It can become a great Latin sea if the Latin peoples enter into a purely defensive league as regards the Central Empires, but one essentially in agreement with them.

In Europe, Latins and Slavs will form the natural counterpoise to the Germans, and this ethnic equilibrium on the continent of Europe will serve as a type of an inter-continental equilibrium, based on the community of interests between Europe and America in face of the menace of the Asiatic peoples. This will at once constitute

a solid guarantee of the hegemony of the white race through the world, and the basis of an understanding between Latins and Germans for the colonization of Africa.

The present stage of Spain's history is marked by a deep-seated restlessness among the masses and by a total loss of their bearings on the part of the ruling classes. The doctors are bold enough to approach the bed on which Spain lies prostrate, but they lack courage to administer the treatment essential to resuscitation.

The restoration of a truly national state can only be the fruit of a cordial coöperation of the Spanish people and the Spanish monarchy. They must be brought into closer and more sympathetic contact to ensure the happiness and the prosperity of Spain. Moreover, all the century-old ties that bind Spain to France, to Rome, to England, must be broken. On these sources Spain has heretofore depended for everything concerning her industrial development, and thus her national independence has been gradually weakened.

It is estimated that foreign capital to the amount of \$800,000,000 is invested in Spanish industrial enterprises, railroads, mines, etc. This represents more than half of the

total capitalization of these undertakings, and indicates the powerful influence at the command of foreign interests.

Señor André sees in the nationalization of the production of iron, copper, coal, wheat, and electric energy a fundamental factor of Spain's national emancipation. The coal produced now has to be supplemented by importing two and a half million tons of English coal annually; Spain's output of iron

ore is about nine million tons, worth less than \$20,000,000, and of this the quantity treated in Spanish foundries is but half a million tons. The lines of transportation and the banks of issue and credit must also be nationalized and freed from foreign control. Lastly, there should be a reform of taxation based on the suppression of financial cliques, and a progressive tax on incomes and property.

THE ECONOMIC BASES FOR AN AUTONOMOUS POLAND

IN the past winter the Polish press in Europe was engaged in extensively discussing the question whether Poland's political independence would not cause her economic ruin. The discussion has become so general that it overflowed the boundaries of the press and for a time became the subject of public debates and lectures in Petrograd Polish circles. Polish public opinion was divided in two camps, each expounding an opposite theory. The old, generally accepted view that Poland owed its economic prosperity to Russia, and that to retain that prosperity it was in the interests of Poland to remain a unity with Russia, is championed by Professor Petrazhitzky, an eminent scholar and publicist. The new theory that Poland could be economically self-supplying, and that political autonomy would also mean an economic blessing to Poland, is being effectively preached by Stanislaw Pekarski, Polish editor, and a cohort of journalists and economists. In the *Retch* (Petrograd) for March and April, I. Clemens, a Polish publicist, reviewed in a series of articles the arguments of the two factions, and summarized their reasons and deductions. He first outlines the facts forming the foundation of the former view.

The total value of Russian Poland's industrial products reached in 1910 the sum of 860 million rubles. To this sum the textile industries had contributed 390 millions, and the metallurgical—110 millions. Three-fourths of the products of these two chief industries went to Russia. The same phenomenon is observable in the haberdashery industry. When one should add to this the various other industries, like shoe, clothing, furniture, etc., the total Polish export to Russia will eloquently speak for itself. Also, in the life of Poland the most important part was played by those events which in one way or other helped to promote closer economic

unity between Russia and the Polish provinces. In this respect the 1851 marks a historic occasion, as on that date custom-duties between Poland and Russia were abolished. Then, the connection of Warsaw and Lodz with Petrograd, Moscow, South Russia and Siberia by a railroad system was of tremendous import. The Russian markets on one hand, Russia's protective tariff, guarding her industries from foreign competition, on the other hand, furnished the bases for the industrial development of the "Russian Belgium"—Poland, the "Polish Manchester"—Lodz, nourishing and supporting them.

The economic tie, binding Russia and Poland, having become an organic tie, was ignored by the Polish press, it being in contradiction to the traditional Polish ideals and aspirations. But *tacitu consensu* it was recognized by all, and considered as a fact. Nevertheless, no party but the Social Democratic dared to proclaim this view as a starting point for a Polish political program. Only in the critical hour of the outbreak of the war in Poland, when the economic unity of Poland and Russia was clearly proved by events, there began to appear groups and factions in Poland whose political orientation was gased on that unity. In 1914 these elements gained much strength, drawing their power from the masses that have been bound by a thousand ties and links to that social-economic structure which came into existence as a result of Polish-Russian relations. These forces, even before the Grand Duke's manifesto, were awaiting some kind of a real or superfluous move, in order to go over to the Russian side and put their trust in Russian policies. "Our Polish press," wrote at that time Pekarski, "evidently considers the question of the benefit to Poland of its economic union with Russia as settled, and therefore evades reference to this ticklish problem, dreaming, one imagines, that we, Poles, will get not only the opportunity for a political existence as would satisfy our nationalistic aspirations, but—that we shall also retain the opportunity for further exploiting Russia economically."

The latest theory, however, is fully contradictory to the above statements. The modern school of Polish economists claims that conditions have so changed that it is no longer profitable for Poland to be united



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BEGINNING TO MAKE GERMANS OUT OF POLISH SUBJECTS

with Russia economically, that it is Russia which is now interested in Poland as a market for her products, and that Poland's economic independence would guard against foreign industrial aggression and promote her economic interests. M. Clemens goes on to review the history and arguments of the new view.

As far back as 1905 the Polish economist Radishevski came to the conclusion that Poland could be a self-supplying economic organism, given her natural resources, her own government, and her outlets to the sea. . . . In 1913 V. V. Zhukovski wrote that "the Polish industries . . . are unable to capture their own home markets. More than a third of the textile products consumed in Russian Poland are supplied by Russian plants. And this import from Russia is constantly growing."

Poland's industrial power is her textile industry. It furnishes Poland a yearly profit of 150 millions, derived from exports to Russia. But at the same time it is Poland's sore spot, as not a single other Polish industry is as much dependent upon Russian markets as the textile. In this fortress of Polish industries—Hannibal ante portas: The Russian products, imported from Russia, like cotton, wool and linen material, beat the Polish products in their own markets. Moscow triumphantly competes with Lodz within the boundaries of Poland. In the years 1900-1910 the export of textile products from Poland to internal Russia was growing at the annual rate of one per cent., while the

export of the same products from Russia to Poland was growing at the rate of 3.7 per cent. annually. "If this process should continue," writes Pekarski, "in the near future the Empire would cease being a market for Poland's textile products, and an entirely opposite situation would arise—Poland would become a market for Russia's textile industry."

The case of Belgium proves that separation from industrial markets, the formation of a state in a portion of the original state, is not economically dangerous. When Holland and Belgium were one state, the latter was supplied with raw material by the former and its colonies, while they in return were supplied with manufactured products by Belgium. Since 1831 Belgium is separated from Holland by a tariff barrier, and Belgian industries, in spite of the predictions of the manufacturers of Ghent and Liège, have not only refused to perish, but prospered greatly.

Poland, therefore, can have no fear of becoming an independent state. Her political autonomy would, if the views of the modern school are correct, be the cause of her economic prosperity, and not ruin. What Poland will need then is not Russia, but capital. With her dense population, enterprise, and political independence she would have no trouble in securing foreign capital, and this would assure for her, from the standpoint of these writers, a brilliant economic future.

GERMAN PRODUCTION OF FRENCH IRON

THE real reason for Germany's persistent attempt to take Verdun is said by Fernand Engerand, a member of the French Chamber, to be a desire for permanent possession and use of the iron mines of Briey. His argument and statistics have been developed by Lucien Chassaing into an article published in the *Journal*, of Paris.

In the opinion of this French statesman, German military leaders and diplomatists have long borne in mind the extension of boundaries so as to include nearby mineral resources which the empire itself lacks. Thus in 1871 the acquisition of French Lorraine brought iron mines which now produce three-fourths of Germany's total production.

Since 1907, Germany has had to buy minerals of France; and in 1913 France sold her four million tons. From that time, this Frenchman asserts, German economists recognized the desirability of acquiring such resources as the war of 1870-71 had left France, and German national aspirations concentrated on the mines of France and Belgium. He also maintains that:

Before war was declared Germany was on the mining land of Briey, and after the victory of the Marne, victorious France had no war material, nor means of manufacturing war materials. Between 70 per cent. and 90 per cent. of her production of mineral, of coke, of cast iron, and of steel was gone. One hundred and twenty-seven high furnaces were running for France in 1913, while early in August, 1914, ninety-five of them were held by the Germans. Indomitable energy saved France during that perilous period, and

all that time Germany was forging cannon and making shells with French mineral.

Germany is dependent upon Briey for her war material. On the 20th of May, 1915, her six great industrial and agricultural associations wrote to Chancellor von Bethmann-Hollweg:

The manufacture of shells demands iron in a quantity so great that no one could have formed an idea that so much could be used, had not our need of it been demonstrated. During the past few months we have needed 4000 tons of the gray cast used in making the inferior shells which we use in place of shells made of cast steel and drawn steel. If we had not been able to double the production of rough-iron and steel since the month of August, 1914, it would have been impossible to continue the war.

As raw material for the manufacture of great quantities of rough iron and steel, "minette" (the Lorraine material) is becoming more and more important. That mineral only can be extracted from our own ground in rapidly increasing quantities. Minette now covers from 60 per cent. to 80 per cent. of the production of rough iron and steel. We might count the war as very nearly lost should our production of minette be disturbed.

This quotation shows how important French iron is to the Germans. They need Belgian coal for their allies and for their commerce with the neutrals. The Belgian coal mines and the iron mines of Briey are the two elements that the Germans most require for their war. Loss of those elements, Deputy Engerand declares, would mean the annihilation of German military power.

TEN YEARS OF RUSSIAN PARLIAMENTARISM

RUSSIA had a jubilee last May. The tenth of that month was the tenth anniversary of the existence of the Duma, Russia's House of Representatives. The Russian press and public seized upon the occasion in a manner truly characteristic of the mood of the transition period through which Russia is now passing. It was an opportunity to review not only the history of the Duma for the last ten years, but also the history of Russia and her government for the same period, unquestionably the most momentous

and outstanding decade in Russian history since the days of Peter the Great.

In the press of the entire country the foremost men in Russian literary, political, and social life gave expression to their minds and hearts in a way that, on the whole, bespoke optimism and hope. It is true there was no joyous jubilation at the jubilee, but one is glad to note that the chronic tone of despair was almost generally absent as well. There was, however, one sentiment that was universal among the progressive elements,



Photos illustrating (C).

DEPUTATION FROM THE RUSSIAN DUMA RECEIVED BY PREMIER BRIAND OF FRANCE

and that was the affection for the first Duma. The first Duma lasted only seventy-two days, dramatically closing its career by that sporadic "Viborg Manifesto," adopted and signed by a majority of the deputies at Viborg, Finland. F. Roditchev, a member of all the four Dumas, Russia's "golden-tongued" orator, and one of the leaders of democracy in the Empire, writes in the *Retch* (Petrograd) about the opening day of the first Duma:

A nation was being created. . . . Its latent power, sweeping away all obstacles, found for itself an indelible expression.

On that day, May 10, 1906, fell the walls that divided the Russian people into innumerable classes of citizens. . . . We felt ourselves equals.

For the first time there appeared a tribune in Russia from which Russian speech could resound with unlimited freedom.

There began the work of renewing Russia.

Editorially the same newspaper says:

Ten years in the life of a nation is, of course, too short a period to count results. But this brief period cannot but seem long to those who lived the somewhat rebellious life of our people's representatives. Its beginning seems to them so distant, as if decades, nay, a century, had passed from that day. And what have these ten years accomplished in the nation's life?

Without any risk of mistaking it may be said that the constitutional idea has in this time permanently settled in the minds of the people. It is possible that this may not have occurred had there been in the last ten years no constant and hard struggle. . . . And the people have learned through this incessant struggle of the Duma for a new era in Russian government to appreciate

this institution. Even the most obstinate theorists, who would not admit at first that the Duma was representative of the people, have now, under the influence of a ten years' political education, come to recognize it as such. The Duma has become to the people what it aimed at: a necessary organic part of its daily life.

But has the other side recognized the Duma as a positive factor in Russian life? In spite of all assurances to that effect, in spite of the fiasco of closing the Duma last year . . . we find it difficult to answer in the affirmative. No, for that side the Duma still remains the subject of a struggle, though, possibly, not a struggle for the idea itself, but for the form of its materialization.

The *Neva* (Petrograd), Russia's most popular weekly, remarks on the occasion of the jubilee:

The activities of the Imperial Duma during the first ten years of its existence have not opened an era in Russian national life, but have formed, so to speak, the first preparatory period for it. For the ten years of the Duma's work have helped a great deal in healing the sick roots of Russian social-political life, and it is terrifying to just think what would have happened to us if the great world catastrophe had found us under the old bureaucratic leadership.

The real political significance of the Duma, its real power and moral force, is not to be measured by its passion for power in the government, but exclusively by its ability to formulate the demands of the nation's conscience and the nation's thoughts. Thus, when the Duma stands on the ground of all-national interests as, for instance, last year on the question of supplying ammunition to the army, she really becomes the voice of the people.

In this vein speaks the majority. The

Duma is a power—that is the gist of nine-tenths of the literary material devoted to the jubilee, a power from which salvation is expected. But the *Kievskaya Mysl* (Kiev), a very radical newspaper, which is also generally considered Russia's best provincial daily, is sharply pessimistic.

For decades have Russia's social forces waited for a national representation—and to-day ten years have passed from the day when that dream seemed nearest realization. The first Duma was to open a new, untrodden path in Russian life. The first chosen of the nation were to lay the foundations of citizenship and liberty, to make an end to the past, and open up a bright future for the country. . . .

The first Duma existed seventy-two days. The Duma, as an institution, has been in existence now for ten years. But between days and years in this case the difference is not so cardinal. And if it is beyond any doubts that the traces left by the first days can boldly compare with those left by the subsequent years, it is also beyond any doubt that on the first day of the life of our national assembly, as well as on the last day, that assembly bore the stamp of fateful helplessness.

Paul Miliukov, perhaps the greatest figure in Russian social-political life, discusses the possibilities of the Duma in the *Retch* as follows:

It is hard to make predictions and it is useless to guess how the fourth Duma will end on the

basis of the bloc tactics the remaining year of its life. But one can already say now that thanks to the bloc the Duma had realized some possibilities that seemed unthinkable at the beginning of its existence. Great events are uplifting. They have raised the fourth Duma to an unusual political and moral height. . . . Measures necessary for the organization of the nation, but considered at first to be outside of the realm of national legislation, have come to be recognized as an important and immediate part of that legislation. The program of the bloc (comprising the majority of the members of the Duma) includes such projects which the former Dumas have tried to enact, but without success. It is this fusion that makes the Duma the recognized center of Russian public thought, and the public had come to uphold it solidly in its activities.

No one will deny that there is a vast difference in the attitude of the people toward the Russo-Japanese and the present war, which is due to the profound difference in the two wars themselves. But I don't expect to be refuted when I will say that the calm which the entire country demonstrated in regard to this war, the patience and discipline which are being shown even now, and, finally, the unanimity with which the people have estimated the causes and results of the present war, are to a large degree due to the activities of the people's representatives, who were absent ten years ago. In the person of the fourth Duma, so clumsily brought into existence and so deformed in its composition, we have a national assembly that has won the confidence of the people, thereby acquiring a firm foundation for its existence, free from any kind of accidental experimentation.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN RUSSIA

SINCE the outbreak of the war in Europe much has been said and written about the many factors that are working for the regeneration of Russia. The social, financial, industrial and political phases of Russian life have received considerable attention in the press, but practically nothing has been said about the progress of elementary education, the greatest of all factors in modern civilization, in the Russian empire. In a recent issue of the *Russkia Vedomosti* (Moscow) there appeared extracts from a report issued by the Ministry of Popular Education in February of this year. This report was the result of five years of work of investigation conducted by the Ministry of Education among the schools of the empire under its control, for there are also in Russia parochial and private elementary schools, though their numbers are not large. In the report are also not included the schools of Finland and the Province of Kamtchatka. The report "covers" a period of four years, from Janu-

ary 11, 1911, when the first general school census was taken in Russia, to January 1, 1915.

On January 1, 1915, there were in the empire 80,801 elementary schools (with the above exceptions), 9006 of which were in cities and towns and 71,795 in villages and hamlets. In the four years that passed since January 11, 1911, the number of schools increased by 19,764, or 32.3 per cent., which is several times more than the corresponding increase in population. In this connection it is of interest to note that in the last twenty years the number of schools grew from 29,000, in 1895, to 81,000, in 1915. From the year when the plan for universal elementary education had been first drafted, 1907, the number of schools grew from 46,000 to 81,000, *i. e.*, an increase of 35,000, or 74.6 per cent. in seven years. These figures speak eloquently for the strides Russia has been making of late in her elementary education.

The statistics as to the numbers of pupils, teachers, and their sexes are also not void of significance. Thus the number of pupils increased from 4,411,000 on January 11, 1911, to 5,942,000, on January 1, 1915, an increase of 1,531,000, or 34.7 per cent. The growth in the number of female pupils was marked everywhere, but especially so in the rural districts, where the increase in female scholars amounted to 47 per cent. in the period of four years. The percentage of female pupils in the entire student body of the elementary schools increased from 32.5 to 34.5 within the four years.

The total teaching force in the Russian elementary schools consisted of 146,000 instructors on January 1, 1915—an increase in the four years of 41,000, or 38.6 per cent. As the increase in the student body was for the same time only 34.7 per cent., it follows

that the number of pupils to each teacher has decreased in the same period. On January 1, 1915, there were 40.7 pupils for every instructor.

Another interesting phenomenon is the constant increase in the number of female teachers at the expense of the male. Thus, in 1911, the percentage of male teachers in the entire force was 43.5. But in the beginning of 1915 the percentage of male teachers decreased to 37.1, while that of the female force rose correspondingly to 62.9. However, these statistics are not equal for all the provinces of the empire. In the forty-three Zemstvo provinces (the more advanced and civilized parts of the country) the percentage for the male teachers was only 30.2, while in the forty-nine remaining provinces there were as many as fifty-six male teachers in every hundred.

A COÖPERATIVE STUDENT CREAMERY

AN interesting experiment in "learning by doing" and in coöperation is being carried out successfully by students in the agricultural department of the Central High School at Duluth, Minn. Being itself new, the department is not hampered by customs and traditions. Less than two years ago—in order to teach dairying properly—it obtained an appropriation of \$150 for the purchase of a creamery outfit suitable for the average farmer. Ever since then the students in the agricultural course have had practical experience in purchasing, manufacturing, and marketing creamery products.

The work is described in *Hoard's Dairyman* by Mr. E. P. Gibson, and although himself head of the agricultural department in the High School and advisory manager of the creamery, he gives full credit to the students themselves.

The equipment, all hand-power models, consists of cream separator, combined churn and butterworker, butter printer, ice box, Babcock tester, acidity test outfit, salt test outfit, moisture test scale, butter print scale, cream scale, cream cans, and minor utensils. The new equipment was received

with such interest and enthusiasm that in the first school year the embryo farmers made a total of 2891 pounds of the best creamery butter in 170 churnings. This record was recognized as a nucleus around which to build creamery practise thoroughly systematized and realistic.

The outgrowth was a students' coöperative creamery with a bank account, a sinking fund,



BUTTER-MAKING AT THE STUDENTS' COÖPERATIVE CREAMERY, CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, DULUTH, MINN.

and typical "articles of incorporation." The Student Creamery Company of the high school is an organization among the boys of the agricultural department, similar on a small scale to the most approved type of farmers' coöperative creameries, for the purpose of obtaining both the

manufacturing and the business experience of creamery practise. The student members produce the cream and milk by purchase, and sell to their creamery, profits from which they share in proportion to their respective patronage.

Each member pays a deposit of two dollars, the total of which "stock" is placed in a local bank to guarantee the credit of the organization. Cash received for butter and all other products

is also banked to enable the treasurer to pay all bills promptly by check. A payroll is issued monthly, and there are monthly reports to the student board of directors. At the end of each school year the balance in the sinking fund will be turned over to the agricultural department, dividends will be declared, and the company dissolved and individual amounts of stock refunded.

PRESENT-DAY CHINA

WHAT is going on behind the scenes in China? Is the Chinese Republic a flash in the pan of some imaginative impulse, or inspiration, or is it the outcropping of the steady growth of forces that make for economic and political enlightenment in the vast empire? There are conflicting opinions on the matter. One of the most interesting is expressed in "Present-Day China," by Gardner Harding,¹ a volume that gives a concise summing up of the problems, the achievements, and the prospects of the Chinese Republic. Although Mr. Harding's book was written before the death of Yuan Shi K'ai, he has made a study of conditions economic, political, and social, that in their inevitable conclusions must still hold good so far as the progress of the masses and real leadership in China is concerned.

Mr. Harding traveled in China after the collapse of the revolution in order to find out just what the Republic had really accomplished there. Cotton factories, coal mines, railroads, schools, prisons, the leading figures of political China came under his observation. Peking's Model Prison he finds exceedingly creditable to the social reform spirit of the Chinese.

Ex-President Eliot of Harvard said a year or so ago that the Peking Prison was the most interesting thing he saw in his whole trip through China. I think the "Gate of Hope" is more interesting, but I should place this magnificent prison a close second.

Take the workrooms, for instance. In great, high-studded rooms forty yards square by a measurement I was curious enough to verify, there were groups of forty or fifty men each working at his trade under conditions, if you consider the standard of living of the far East, almost ideal. There were big rooms for ten or more trades, including tailoring, shoemaking, woodworking, ironsmithing, bookbinding, spinning and weaving, basket-making, printing, and several others, not the least of which was market-gardening outdoors.

At the Peking Prison they not only teach them a trade, but they have an employment bureau which connects a man with a job. They segregate first offenders from old-timers, and men convicted of light offenses from those guilty of heavier ones up through second, third, and fourth offenders. In fact, forgery, petty larceny, robbery, and assault and battery are the names of cell rows where convicts of kindred offenses are exclusively confined. The governor confessed that the atmosphere might be rather narrowing, but it was all in the name of modernism and system.

The parole system has been introduced, and the governor has decided to stick to it. Physical drill, an innovation in any class of Chinese society, is held daily, and the setting-up exercise I saw proved that the men enter into it with appreciation and enthusiasm. But the outstanding note of the prison is cleanliness and order. The cells are large and though doubling up is common, they are dry and clean.

The organization of the Chinese Suffragette Society by Miss Tang Chunying, a Chinese girl who had been a student in Japan and a pioneer for women's reform for ten years before the revolution, is of particular interest.

That there is a flourishing women's movement in China at the present time is well known, but few perhaps realize that it has sprung spontaneously out of the Chinese people and is not the result of foreign influences.

The constitution of the Chinese Suffrage Society was impressive. It included ten points to work for: the education of women, the abolition of footbinding, the prohibition of concubinage and its result in making marriage a polygamous institution, the forbidding of child marriages, reform in the condition of prostitutes, social service to women in industry, the encouragement of modesty in dress, better terms of marriage for the sexes, leading toward marriages for love, the establishment of political rights, and the elevation of the position of women in the family and the home.

In regard to present financial conditions in the Empire, Mr. Harding writes:

It is now known that for the year 1915 China again made both ends meet with a substantial balance to her credit. The customs receipts for

¹ Present-Day China. By Gardner L. Harding. The Century Co. 250 pp. Ill. \$1.

the month of January, the best index to China's trade conditions, show an increase over last year. The reorganized salt taxes, which yielded \$6,000,000 in 1913, and rose to \$29,000,000 in 1914, went up in 1915 well over \$30,000,000. The flourishing state of China's government railways is shown by the fact that the Peking-Mukden, Peking-Kalgan, and the Peking-Hankow lines besides accounting for the steady progress in new construction beyond Kalgan, produced between them a net revenue to the state of over \$6,000,000. Agricultural experimentation is being carried on on a large scale, particularly in the tea and silk industries, to the latter of which \$10,000,000 was contributed by the government during the early part of the war for the relief of the silk filatures. The Chinese Government Bonds are still quoted as they have been for some years past, at a higher rate than those of Japan.

Among the possible causes of another war, in case the integrity of China should not be maintained, he sees the coveted control of the South Manchurian Railway, the exploitation of the great oil, coal, and other mineral deposits, etc.; the contest for the development of this "vast reservoir of economic power, the greatest that has been opened up to the world in modern times."

Mr. Harding thinks that the struggle for control of power in China which has been suspended among the nations by the war, will re-commence practically as soon as peace is established, and that America must share in the only honorable conclusion that China



RAW MATERIAL FOR CHINA'S INDUSTRIAL FUTURE
(From Harding's "Present-Day China")

must not be plundered, nor dismembered for "the upbuilding of China is vital to the peace of the world."

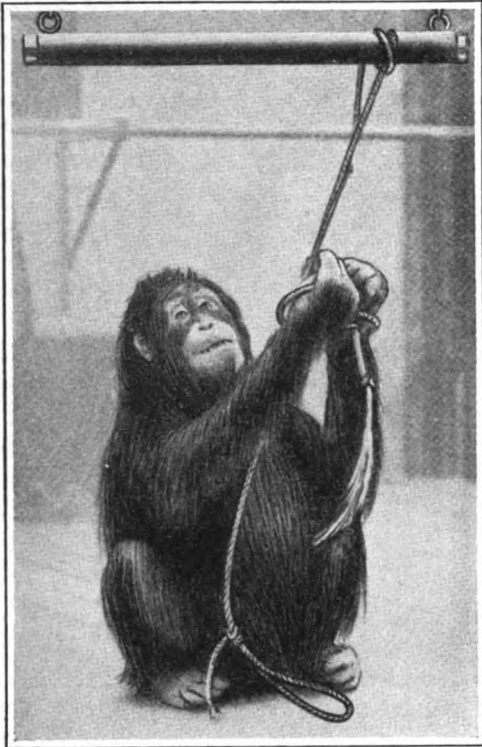
HOW NEARLY HUMAN ARE THE APES?

IF deaf, dumb and blind children have been taught by beings they could not see to use language they could not hear, would not one be justified in an earnest endeavor to teach the higher apes, with faculties and senses alert and with traditional powers of imitation, to do the same in a limited degree? It seems well nigh incredible that in animals otherwise so close to us physically there should not be a rudimentary speech center in the brain which only needs development."

Dr. William H. Furness, 3d, in an article of captivating interest contributed to the *Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society* (Philadelphia), thus formulates one of the problems in a study of simian mentality to which he has devoted much time during the past seven years. Dr. Furness is a globe-trotter of some renown. His intimacy with orang-utans began a number of years ago in Borneo; and he has since entertained two orangs and two chimpanzees at

his home in Pennsylvania. Of these interesting guests only one, a chimpanzee, still survives. For weeks at a time he spent as much as six hours a day in their company. He says:

In teaching articulate speech I found the first difficulty to be overcome in both the orang and the chimpanzee is their lack of use of lips or tongue in making their natural emotional cries. These natural cries are almost entirely, I think I may say, head tones—shrieks, squeals or grunts, made for the greater part on inspiration. They unquestionably have, however, distinctly different sounds to indicate their simple emotions of fear, anger, and joy. The orang in one respect does use the lips to make a sound indicating warning or apprehension; this sound is made with the lips pursed up and the air sucked through them—an exaggerated and prolonged kissing sound, followed by a grunting expiration and inspiration. . . . My oldest orang would make this sound on command (I had merely to say, "What is the funny sound you make when you are frightened?"). Their expression of pleasure, as I have heard it, is several high-pitched squeaks



Photograph by George Gladden, with permission of the New York Zoological Society

"MOLLY" TYING A KNOT IN A ROPE

(At the time when this photograph was taken "Molly," an adult orang-utan, had lived in the New York Zoological Park about nine years. No one knows how she learned this trick of tying a knot in a rope. Molly died about three years ago, a victim of tuberculosis.)

made with the lips closed. Their expression of anger is a deep-toned guttural grunt or bark, much like that of an angry hog.

The writer also describes the chimpanzee's natural emotional vocabulary, which, like that of the orang, is limited to a few inarticulate sounds.

In the case of the orang-utan it took at least six months of daily training to teach her to say "papa." This word was selected not only because it is a very primitive sound, but also because it combined two elements of vocalization to which orang-utans and chimpanzees are unaccustomed; namely, the use of lips and an expired vowel sound. The training consisted of a repetition of the sounds for minutes at a time, while the ape's lips were brought together and opened in imitation of the movements of my lips. I also went through these same maneuvers facing a mirror, with her face close to mine that she might see what her lips were to do as well as feel the movement of them. At the end of about six months, one day, of her own accord, out of lesson time, she said "papa" quite distinctly, and repeated it on command. Of course I praised and petted her enthusiastically; she never forgot it after that and finally recognized

it as my name. When asked, "Where is papa?" she would at once point to me or pat me on the shoulder.

The next word the writer attempted to teach her was "cup." By this time his pupil understood nearly all the instructions given her, such as "Open your mouth," "Stick out your tongue," "Do this," and so forth. She was taught to make the sound "ka" by pushing back her tongue with a bone spatula, and holding her nose as she was about to expire. Meanwhile the teacher kept his own mouth open, with his tongue in the same position. As he released her tongue, he would say "ka" emphatically.

It was comparatively very easy from this to teach her to say "kap" by means of closing her lips with my fingers the instant she said "ka." At the same time I showed her the cup that she drank out of and I repeated the word several times as I touched it to her lips. After a few lessons when I showed her the cup and asked, "What is this?" she would say "cup" very plainly. Once when ill at night she leaned out of her hammock and said, "cup, cup, cup," which I naturally understood to mean that she was thirsty, and which proved to be the case. I think this showed fairly conclusively that there was a glimmering idea of the connection of the word with the object and with her desire. By getting her to stick out her tongue and then by holding the tip of it up against her teeth and at the same time forcing her to breathe through her mouth, I finally got her to make the sound *th*. This was preliminary to teaching the words "the," "this," "that."

Unhappily the young orang died a few months after she had acquired the first inkling of language, and the author's one surviving pet, a chimpanzee, has proved to be a much less apt pupil.

Both the chimpanzee and the orang-utan possess a retentive memory for objects in connection with actions; in other words, for the association of ideas; they knew precisely the right key for every lock and padlock in their apartments and could pick them out of a bunch of ten or twelve other keys and could unfasten the lock. It was the shape and size of the key that they remembered, I am convinced; they were tested with duplicate keys placed on different key rings and the right key was always selected. Two of the keys were for Yale locks and hard to distinguish.

The orang-utan and the chimpanzee have been able to learn the letters of the alphabet in order up to *M*. This is merely a demonstration of memory for different shapes in a certain sequence. The letters which I used are cut out of wood $\frac{3}{4}$ inch thick by 4 inches square. The chimpanzee recollects quite accurately just the sequence of these shapes in the series. By name she does not distinguish them as well, except where the letter sound is very distinct. *B, F, H, L, M* seem to be easy for her to recognize, where-

as *A*, *K*, *E*, *D*, *C* and *G* are confusing. When asked for the letter *I* she is apt to mistake it for her eye, to which she points. When the letters are drawn the same size and width with chalk on a blackboard or printed in black on white cards she fails to recognize them.

I do not wish to generalize, but from my experience with a very bright chimpanzee and an exceptionally receptive orang-utan I should say that the ability to recognize the significance of graphic representation is as lacking in the anthropoid mind as is the inclination to speak. The crudest scrawls of the cave-dwellers are hundreds of centuries ahead of simian thought. I have spent hours trying to get my anthropoids to draw two crossed lines on a blackboard. If the board be placed lying flat on the floor in front of them they will draw horizontal lines with the swing of the arm. If the board be placed upright, they draw nearly perpendicular lines merely as the weight of the arm carries the chalk down. With pencil and paper they make nothing but scrawling zigzags, with no method in their madness, and no amount of copy set or guiding of their hands will induce them to do otherwise. They have, however, a decided sense of color. Both of them have been taught to know red, blue and yellow by name, and the chimpanzee can select and place in separate piles blocks colored violet, blue, green, yellow, orange, and red.

The writer taught his pupils to perform many complex operations, including the tying of a knot. But he concludes:

I am eager to be able to say truthfully that my anthropoids have shown signs of reasoning (I mean have deduced an inference from certain premises), but truthfully I can say that I have seen only the faintest rays of evidence, unless association of ideas, which, in point of fact, is merely learning by experience, is reasoning. The chimpanzee, if given the key to the closet in her room, will fit it in the lock, turn it in the right direction, slip back the little spring catch, open the door, get the top of the spigot which is kept there to avoid a waste of water, fit the top of the spigot, get a drink of water, and finally turn the water off. It appears as if in this act there were no sequence of ideas concerted to accomplish a purpose, and therefore to a certain extent there were reasoning. I am inclined to think, however, that such an act with the chimpanzee is governed by a simple succession of ideas rather than by a prearranged sequence of actions, with a definite object in view. It would seem that the inability to compare one object with another or one action with another precludes their mind from either deductive or inductive reasoning, and that their brains are as incapable of reasoning as we do as a dog's paw (for instance) is incapable of holding a pen as we do.

"OUR DISAPPEARING WILD FLOWERS"

"Hast thou named all the birds without a gun?
Loved the wood-rose and left it on its stalk?"

—EMERSON.

"THE love of flowers is one of the earliest passions and probably one of the most enduring," and "rare indeed is the person who would willingly and knowingly contribute to the disappearance of nature's priceless heritage, the wild flowers."

Yet in spite of our love for wild flowers, Albert A. Hansen, Instructor of Botany in Pennsylvania State College, writes in the *Pennsylvania State Farmer* that the one-time familiar and abundant native species have begun to disappear. Various causes are advanced as reasons for this disappearance—the cultivation of the soil, drainage, grazing, lumbering and building, but Mr. Hansen thinks the greater number are being lost to flower-lovers because of ruthless, promiscuous, vandalistic plucking of flowers, for the temporary gratification of the moment. This cause would be very nearly controllable if the knowledge of the proper care of our wild flowers were disseminated throughout the country and taught in the public schools. Already many societies have been organized in different States, the most prominent of which is—"The Wild Flower Preservation

Society of America," with chapters in all parts of the country. These societies hope to do for the preservation of wild flowers what the Audubon Society has done for birds.

Says Mr. Hansen:

The saddest part of it all is that in the same manner that war kills off the finest of our manhood, so the war upon plants conducted by the thoughtless collector kills off the most beautiful and attractive of our flowers, while the ill-scented, inconspicuous or otherwise less appealing ones remain to take the place of their more handsome relatives. This is especially true of our annual plants: they have but one means of reproducing their kind and that is by seed. If the flowers are picked, these plants are robbed of their natural right to reproduce their kind, because a flowerless plant will never produce seed. Have we a right to rob posterity of the pleasures we now enjoy from the beauties of our wild flowers? Does not the greatest good for the greatest number demand that we leave the flower on its stalk to perpetuate its kind for the pleasure of those who follow us?

The wanton destruction of wild flowers is largely due to the lack of knowledge of the various ways in which plants and flowers appeal to the mind of man, of their sensibilities, intelligence, and the various phenomena of their life. The study of botany

as bearing on the so-called "human side of plants," will do more to preserve the native wild flowers than any other measure. Those who pluck and destroy flowers are usually ignorant of their essential life, the useful work done by them, the causes of the marvels of their coloring, the various substances made by them, and the curious ways by which they draw into themselves the various materials they need; how they resist their enemies and perpetuate their species, and even secure change of location. Scientifically speaking the simplest common wild flower is a marvel:

"Cell joined to cell,
mysterious life passed
on

By viscous threads; se-
lecting in its course,
From formless matter
with mysterious touch
That seems a presci-
ence, out of which to
weave

The warp and woof of
tissues."

Among the wild flowers that are rapidly disappearing along the Eastern seaboard is the arbutus, "the sweetest flower that grows," which will soon become extinct unless measures are taken for its preservation.

When our Pilgrim forefathers settled in New England, they were loyally welcomed by a profusion of arbutus, the "sweetest flower that grows." To-day the arbutus has become practically extinct throughout New England, except in a few favored localities. The same fate is rapidly overtaking the region of State College. In the memory of the writer, arbutus was plentiful within a short distance of the College; to-day considerable searching is required to find patches of any extent. A few years ago, arbutus was abundant in the region of Cornell University, where it is now practically extinct. The writer is familiar with a region in Cambria County where arbutus was exterminated within the short space of five years. And all this in face of the fact that the damage is absolutely useless, due entirely to ignorance of the habit of the plant. Arbutus is a perennial, rarely maturing seed in this State, and reproducing almost entirely by the trailing, creeping stems, which send up flower-branches at frequent intervals. As pointed out by the writer a few weeks ago in the *Collegian*, if the flowering stems are cut off with a sharp knife, little harm is done, but if the creeping stems are ruthlessly pulled as has been the practice in the past, the doom of the charming trailing arbutus is sealed. If the creeping stems are distributed, the plant is robbed of its only means of reproduction and those who come after us are robbed of the pleasures which we now enjoy.



THE TRAILING ARBUTUS

Other vanishing blooms are the ladies' slipper, or moccasin flower, especially the yellow variety and the white with pink veining, and all other orchids; the shy cardinal flower, the spring beauty, Mayapple, pinkster, jack-in-the-pulpit, lupine, Christmas fern, partridge berry, and white pond lilies. And it is not alone the plucking of these flowers that altogether drives them from the fields and woods according to some botanists. Many flowers and plants refuse close contact with civilization; they will not thrive in cultivated gardens.

When the forests become tramping grounds for tourists, these flowers vanish mysteriously. Surely since we afford asylum for birds and beasts, we can make provision for our wild flowers. There is no higher evolution in the whole plant kingdom than the flower-

ing plant. Mr. Hansen urges the substitution of flowering weeds for bouquets, if we must indulge the passion for picking wild flowers.

There is a large group of plants represented by the field daisy, the black-eyed Susan, and orange hawkweed, which are so marvelously gifted by nature, that it seems no amount of picking will exterminate them. They are known to the farmer as weeds, and their collection will serve the dual purpose of supplying bouquets and aiding the farmers in solving the weed problem.

Mr. Frank C. Pellett, Iowa State Bee Inspector, is rescuing wild flowers that will thrive under cultivation, by the simple expedient of giving them space to grow on his farm. This method can be easily pursued in almost every section where native wild flowers are threatened with destruction.

A half-acre plot on his little farm is used exclusively as a wild-flower preserve, and there are more varieties of wild flowers and plants growing in this small field than can be found in almost any garden in the country. Some of these flowers have become extremely valuable because of the fact that they have practically disappeared from the fields and timberland of the State. The State has suffered an immense loss because of this ruthless destruction of its native flowers. Mr. Pellett believes, and he is preserving all of the species until such time as the farmers begin to realize their mistake and are anxious to make amends by repopulating the roadsides with honey-producing plants.

Cannot other preserves be founded?

AMERICAN STUDENTS IN FRANCE AFTER THE WAR

THE higher educational institutions of France—their past and present aspects, their virtues and shortcomings, their future duty and prospects—are discussed in an exhaustive and interesting article, appearing in a late issue of the *Revue de Paris*, by Louis Liard, who has filled most important posts in the educational field of his country and is the author of numerous philosophical and educational works. Incidentally, he pays a high tribute of praise to the women of France for their noble fortitude, their heroic, successful endeavor in this time that tries men's souls.

We quote the concluding portion of M. Liard's article, as being of special interest to readers in the United States:

One body of students upon whom we may confidently count are foreigners. For a number of years they have been abundantly represented. One service, among others, that the French universities have rendered has been to point the foreigners' way anew to the schools of France. Prior to the war, Paris, Montpellier, Grenoble, Nancy, Lyons, and other places, could boast of attracting a great number of foreigners. The war has upset all that. Certain countries that sent us their students will do so no longer. But, on the other hand, others that were wont to send us but very few, are inclined—we have sure indications of it—to send us more: our allies, in the first place, our friends and, besides, certain neutral nations that, without openly taking part in the conflict, have a feeling for us which needs but the kindling touch of personal contact with our people.

The higher instruction in the United States—to speak of it specially—has long been tributary to the German universities. Outside of some professors of the Romance language and of French literature, who sojourned in Paris, it was to Berlin where nearly all the others repaired in quest of science.

Here is what an American professor wrote quite recently:

"For the last forty years the great majority of the students going abroad studied in Germany, which had the effect of giving them an exaggerated and partial respect for German science, while they were ignorant of the least equal value of French science. At present, those among them who have since long regretted this state of things, believe that it would now be possible to take advantage of the anti-German sentiment prevailing in this country, and encourage the hundreds of professors in the United States to concentrate their efforts upon influencing students in that direction."

Some months previously, another American professor expressed himself in still more impressive language:

"It is almost needless to say that one of the benefits of this infernal war will be to link more

closely the bonds that Unite France with America. To-day it is generally said in the United States that, on the whole, of all the great nations of Europe, France is the most valiant in battle, has endured the direct trials without flagging, and committed the fewest acts that call for justification or explanation. She will emerge from this war with a moral standing higher than she has ever had. Hitherto, too many Americans regarded France as the country of elegant manners, feminine fashions, and choice cooking. An entirely new side, and a much nobler one, has now been revealed to us.

"Another, more direct, result of the war will be that in future our American youth will go to Paris to study in far greater numbers than they did in the past. It is not likely that we shall be well received in Berlin after all that has occurred, and we are in no humor to impose ourselves upon German 'hospitality.'

"That chapter is closed: German erudition, German science, will never again have the undisputed authority in our eyes which they had before 1914. For it is impossible for a nation that is dominated to such a point by a national philosophy so depraved, to retain its intellectual life intact, to be enduringly worthy of the welcoming esteem which the student body the world over accorded it. And, on the contrary, the noble attitude of France, rising to face the great ordeal, has earned a profound regard for her learning and literature, her national culture, and has given America a greater desire than ever to gather instruction from her example."

These are words [the French writer concludes], pleasant and encouraging for us to hear. Yes, if we know how to turn to account all for which we stand, all that we represent as a civilization ancient and modern, all the humanity in us accumulated and conserved, the sympathetic spirit, a recognized national trait, we can attract and retain those students far away ready to turn aside from the atavic barbarism, suddenly revived, of Germany, and to welcome the Latin ideal, whose torch burns ever bright in our hands; we shall thus secure for our universities, our higher seats of learning, a clientele even greater than before, and shall propagate friendship for France beyond our frontiers, beyond the seas.

The benefits which our higher education will thus derive are nothing to the moral benefit that France will reap.

Let us cherish the conviction, and say to ourselves, that the higher French instruction has, particularly at this time, a double function: to maintain and develop in the nation that which is its moral *raison d'être*, its peculiar genius, the ideal which it has inherited, and which it ought to nurture; then, to radiate abroad by its inherent force of expansion, and without doing violence to the genius of any other people, the spirit of any man, those elements of our genius, our ideal, that are communicable.

This, despite the losses which it will have incurred, and which it will in time repair, our higher instruction has before it a noble task, and the prospect of happy days.

ITALIAN APPRECIATIONS OF SHAKESPEARE

IN spite of the storm and stress of the war in Italy, the Tercentenary of Shakespeare's death has not been forgotten in the land in which the scene of so many of his plays was laid. Notable among the Italian literary tributes to his memory are several studies published together in *Nuova Antologia*. The first place is rightfully given to the translation of an address by Sir Sidney Lee on "Shakespeare and the Renaissance"; however, as the original of this is already accessible to English readers, we confine ourselves to the strictly Italian appreciations of our great poet.

The paper by Prof. Alfredo Galetti, of Bologna University, on "Shakespeare and the Shakespeare Myth," is not a study of the fantastic theory of Baconian authorship, as might perhaps be supposed, but an attempt to show the one-sidedness of Germany's favorite claim that the great poet belongs exclusively to the specifically Germanic race. In the unsympathetic presentation of this theory can be clearly perceived the action of the present national antagonisms of Italy. In this writer's estimation, it was the animosity and resentment Gottlob Ephraim Lessing felt toward Voltaire that led him to seek for a pretender to Germany's poetic crown, for one who could be successfully opposed to the abhorred dynasty of the French poets. Shakespeare, he declared, is not only an English poet, he is a German poet, the poet of those whom the Gothic converts to Christianity called *Deutsche* (*Thiudisks*), that is to say, pagans. Did not the German Angles and Saxons conquer, in the fifth and sixth centuries, that Celtic Britain, which Rome in her weakness had deserted? And have not the imagination, the passion and the lyric gift of Shakespeare their roots deep down in the most widely-diffused myths, the legends, the customs, and the psychological characteristics of the German race?

While, however, Lessing was not disposed to relinquish classic tradition, rather seeking to find the essential qualities of the classic dramas in Shakespeare's plays, succeeding German champions of Shakespeare's supremacy, belittling the value of this tradition, at least as far as Rome, Italy, and France were concerned, and only recognizing the special claims of Greek literature, saw in Shakespeare the expression of a new spon-

aneous revelation of the genius of a people, or rather of a race; at a later time, again, the Romantic school hailed him as their standard-bearer. For Professor Galetti this only does justice to one side of his genius, in reality he expresses at once the clear and harmonious ideal of the Renaissance, and the mysterious, enigmatic ideal of the Romantic period. He represents at once the highest achievement of the one and the most potent agent in the evolution of the other.

A striking contrast between the tragedies of Shakespeare and those of ancient Greece is that in the latter man is under the dominion of a pitiless fate, the decrees of which are fixed and determined. If, in obedience to some transcendent aim, the hero finds himself forced to defy the behests of fate, he realizes that the punishment must come, and is ready to meet it with unbroken courage. In Shakespeare's tragedies, however, Professor Galetti sees an uncertainty as to whether the opposing element is divine or diabolical, of Ormuzd or of Ahriman, or whether the hero is merely the sport of the contending forces of good and evil, as he often falls a prey to the occult powers of nature, to witches and disembodied spirits, Hamlet's assertion, "There's a divinity that shapes our ends," lacks the definiteness of the ancient Nemesis, or of the Christian conception of God's guidance. And it is this very indefiniteness in Shakespeare's idea of the moral order of the world that most attracted the Romanticists, the essence of whose psychology and art was that life is mysterious, contradictory, incoherent, an interplay of obscure forces, sometimes fleetingly apprehended by intuition, but always hidden from our reason.

The article by Prof. Federico Olivero, of Turin, on "The Hamlet of William Shakespeare, is a very satisfactory study of this greatest of Shakespeare's plays. In the paper by Prof. N. R. d'Alfonso, of the Royal University at Rome, entitled "William Shakespeare, Actor and Author," we have a criticism of the use some disciples of Lombroso have tried to make of Shakesperian characters as illustrations of their pet theory. He says:

It is noteworthy that among the followers of that school of criminology which sees in criminals a definite human species, characterized by organic anomalies, of the school

which upholds the theory of the born criminal, and makes epilepsy the sole cause of crime, some have sought to find in the delinquents of the Shakespearean theater proofs of the correctness of this theory. To do this it has been necessary to simplify greatly their psychological characteristics. It was only too easy to say that Othello sinned because he was an epileptic, that Richard III was a criminal because of his deformity, etc. If, however, these criminologists had explored the soul-depths of those characters in Shakespeare's plays who are represented to have been guilty of criminal acts, they would have been induced to modify their theory, and would have been shown the path leading to a right understanding of the psychological genesis of crime. They would have seen clearly that even Richard III, the character that seems to offer the most conclusive example of a born criminal, is really such by education (intrinsic and extrinsic), since he was brought up in an age of political strife and of great crimes, and belonged to a family that played a leading part in the events of this period.

The musical element in Shakespeare's plays is the subject chosen by Signora Margherita Berio. In her opinion Queen Elizabeth's fondness for music—she was an excellent performer on the lute and the vir-

ginal—exercised considerable influence in this direction. In the masques which were so highly favored at the court of Elizabeth, and at that of her successor, James I, music occupied a very prominent place. By grouping together some of the most striking passages referring to music, and the charms of music, Signora Berio brings out clearly Shakespeare's love of this art. That he knew something at least of harmonics is to be deduced from the words (Richard II, Act V, sc. 5):

Music do I hear?

Ha, Ha! Keep time—how sour sweet music is
When time is broke and no proportion kept.

As an illustration of the music of the period the writer presents the words and notes of the contemporary musical setting given by Thomas Morley to the song in *Twelfth Night* (Act II, sc. 3): "O mistress mine, where are you roaming?" and also the words and notes of the "Willow Song" of Desdemona. She accepts the opinion that most of the songs were adopted or adapted by Shakespeare from pieces popular in his day. This writer also notes that the first Hamlet opera was that of Domenico Scarlatti, who, in 1715, produced in the Capranica Theater at Rome an operatic version of this play.

"THE SUBSTANCE OF POETRY"

A NEW monthly magazine, the *Poetry Review*, edited by William Stanley Braithwaite and Joseph Lebowich, announces the object of the publication in its first issue (Cambridge, Mass., May, 1916). This object shall be to quicken and enlarge the poetic pulse of this country, to make the public responsive to the creative genius of the poets, to keep the flame of truth and beauty burning in the minds of the people; and also, to offer every possible aid and encouragement to the poets, to serve as a clearing-house of ways and means to promote the art of poesy, and to focus popular interest upon that which is fine and worthy in the work of our contemporary poets. The editors propose to maintain an impartial standard of judgment. Artistic merit alone will decide a poem's publication, and a "catholicity of taste and standard of performance will be the guiding factors" in the judging of poetry submitted to them. Aside from

the publication of new poems, each issue of the *Poetry Review* will contain serious reviews of current books of verse, and books on poetry and poets, and special articles that touch on phases of poetic activity, exchange of ideas, opinions, etc.—"in truth a comprehensive history of all the forces which make for the progress of poetry in America."

This first issue contains poems by Benjamin R. C. Low, Amy Lowell, Amelia Josephine Burr, Louis Untermeyer, Caroline Giltman, and Sarah Teasdale. The reviews and articles are by Padraic Colum, Edward J. O'Brien, Edwin F. Edgett, Louis Untermeyer, and William Stanley Braithwaite. There has been quite a serious disagreement of late among various schools of modern poetry as to just what the substance of poetry should be; therefore it is of decided interest to note Mr. Braithwaite's opinion in quotations from his article, which is entitled "The Substance of Poetry."

Poetry is compounded of dream and imagination; the former its spirit, the latter its will. There is no human being who has not in some degree a portion of both these natural forces of consciousness. Poetry, in spite of all denials, is often the one channel of communication a man has between himself and the world in which he lives. To confirm this contention think of the seaman in the old days of clipper ships, of the shepherd in the hills with his flock, of the peasant in any land; from all these lowly classes of men has come a body of natural song, and from the latter, especially, a vast and various store of folk literatures which have enriched the beauty of life, and given to scholarship a humaneness and beauty of feeling.

These various grades of individuals, regarded as inferiors according to the cultural standards of the world, were able to communicate with the mysteries—legible to other men, through poetry; caught their significances even when they could not explain them, through the power of dream and imagination. We are pretty sure, on the one hand, that wherever there is dream, wherever there is imagination, there also poetry abides. But, on the other hand, our modern world has been loath to admit that what dream and imagination has accomplished in practical affairs has been too tremendously real and concrete for an abstraction like poetry to be either responsible for, or justly accredited with, any contribution to the mechanic marvels of modern life. This thought alone had altered public opinion in regards to poetry; it went so far as to affect the private feelings which men and women had for the art.

Our primary impressions relate themselves to facts. We live in a world of facts, subsist upon them as a means of attachment to life and its progress. They are the starting-points from which we proceed to those other essentials which contribute to the satisfaction of life and being. The earth, sky, the city, the countryside, the house in which we live, the objects which we handle and manipulate in the application and creation of the things necessary for human comfort and enjoyment; these, from the unreachable blue dome that spreads above our universe to the needle with which we mend a garment, are facts. And they would be these and nothing more if poetry did not dissolve them in our dreams and imagination.

Mr. Braithwaite thinks that there is in poetry a force, a power, that molds character and subtly plays upon our spiritual natures to their refreshment and renewal.

After we have considered all the aspects of the substance of the "golden threads of

poetry which run intimately through the pattern of our lives" we have to discover why, in times of stress and sorrow, the most practical people turn to the poets for the renewal of strength with which to combat the ills and misfortunes of life.

The two things I am about to name are perhaps the closest to our consciousness, are, indeed, our consciousness itself, but they affect our positions in life by their intangible, abstract influences. These are experience and character, two of the four major facts of life in which the essence of poetry is the most subtle, and through which its expression is the most profound. Our entire experience with life, with reality, is founded upon spiritual curiosity, and therefore the adventures which experience begets, whatever its mood, how ordinary its results, are poetic.

Now, the greatest fallacy, I think, in regard to psychological stimulus, is that which declares that action, the concrete, alone constitute and embody experience, and that character is formed by the play of such visible forces upon the mental and moral susceptibilities of the individual. In one's life the event is most importantly real when it is born in the soul; there is the germ and development of what we call experience, because we so live all its possibilities imaginatively before recording it in the world through action that all the sources of our character are called upon to present the particular event in harmony with our desires and emotions. In this formative process, through which experience accumulates by spiritual recognition what is real in ourselves, and in consequence of which character and traits of character are shaped, what, we may ask, is the force ceaselessly and mysteriously at work? Is it not that insoluble, primal force called poetry?

The second number of the *Poetry Review* shows that the public received the initial issue of this significant magazine with enthusiasm, and that splendid support is bound to follow the warm welcome given by its contemporaries. The June number contains interesting letters from poets and critics, editorials, poems by Louis Ledoux, Joyce Kilmer, John Gould Fletcher, James B. Fitzgerald, and Karl Wilson Baker; and articles and reviews by Jeannette Marks, Amy Lowell, Sylvester Baxter, and Amelia Josephine Burr.¹

¹ The *Poetry Review*. Edited by William S. Braithwaite and Joseph Lebowich. Published monthly at 12 Chauncy Street, Cambridge, Mass. \$1 per year; 12 issues.



THE NEW BOOKS

PREPAREDNESS: FOR AND AGAINST

Imperiled America. By John Callan O'Laughlin. Chicago: Reilly & Britton. 264 pp. \$1.50.

A candid exposition from the diplomatic standpoint of the real meaning of the world war to the United States. The author, who was formerly Assistant Secretary of State and Secretary to the United States Commission to Japan, analyzes the attitude of foreign powers towards the Monroe Doctrine, the position held by the United States in the Pacific, the Japanese portent, as he terms it, and the community of interest between America and the Allies. In some quarters Mr. O'Laughlin would be regarded as an alarmist but the trend of his argument is not to develop a policy of militarism so much as one of self-protection.

Awake! U. S. A. By William Freeman. Doran. 453 pp. \$2.

This book points out in detail the dangers to our Government and people resulting from unpreparedness. It is a graphic synthesis of military and economic statistics.

Address by Elihu Root. Dutton. 36 pp. 50 cents.

A complete reprint of Mr. Root's address, as temporary chairman of the New York Republican Convention, on February 15 last, portions of which were reproduced in the March number of this REVIEW.

Our Military History. By Leonard Wood, U. S. A. Chicago: Reilly & Britton. 240 pp. Ill. \$1.

A clear statement of the terrible price that has been paid in the past for our national sins of unpreparedness. General Wood also presents in this book his own plan for developing a system of citizen soldiery.

Fundamentals of Military Service. By Captain Lincoln C. Andrews. Philadelphia: Lippincott. 428 pp. \$1.50.

Captain Andrews was one of the popular and efficient officers of the Plattsburg Camp of 1915, and is well equipped by training and experience for the preparation of a volume on military service. His book is not a dry, technical manual, but an interesting interpretation of the spirit and meaning of the service in all its branches. It is designed for both the professional and the citizen soldier, from private to officer. Indeed, a chapter like that on "Leadership" is excellent reading for a man in any walk of life. This handy little volume is replete with the philosophy and wisdom of the seasoned soldier, and should be among the first and essential volumes in the library of the military training-camp man.

The Dangers of Half-Preparedness. An Address by Norman Angell. Putnam. 129 pp. 50 cents.

The argument of this book resolves itself into a plea for a declaration of American policy. In the author's view such a policy is required quite as much as any measure of military preparedness. In other words, our power as a nation, however great, will fail unless we make known to the world, as well as to ourselves, the ultimate purposes of that power.

New Wars for Old. By John Haynes Holmes. Dodd, Mead & Co. 369 pp. \$1.50.

A statement of radical pacifism, from the standpoint of expediency.

What the War Is Teaching. By Charles E. Jefferson. Revell. 218 pp. \$1.

Lectures in which the pastor of the Broadway Tabernacle in New York City emphasizes the hateful aspects of war and points out some of the fallacies of the so-called armed peace.

Preparedness. By William L. Hull, Ph.D. Revell. 271 pp. \$1.25.

In this volume Professor Hull takes the standards of adequacy and efficiency as laid down by the military and naval experts themselves and uses them as a measurement of the adequacy and efficiency of the programs of preparedness now presented to the American people. The author attempts to determine precisely what a "defensive war" against a first-rate power in twentieth-century warfare would mean, and precisely what kind of a military program would be adequate for it. He then presents his own alternative proposition—the judicial settlement of international differences.

Inviting War to America. By Allan L. Benson. B. W. Huebsch. 190 pp. \$1.

The Socialist party's candidate for President gives in this little book the Socialist argument against militarism, as applied to the present situation of the United States.

The Rise of Rail-Power. By Edwin A. Pratt. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 405 pp. \$2.50.

A strangely neglected field of military study has been invaded by Mr. Pratt, who is an authority on matters of railroad transportation. There are interesting chapters on "France and the War of 1870-71," "Railways in the Boer War," "The Russo-Japanese War," and various phases of the general problem of railroads as a strategic element. The author points out that our own Civil War was the beginning of the scientific use of railroads for military purposes.

THE GREAT WAR AND ITS LESSONS

England's Effort. By Mrs. Humphry Ward. Scribner. 176 pp. \$1.

This is by far the fullest and most vigorous statement regarding England's part in the great war that has reached this side of the Atlantic. Mr. Joseph H. Choate says, in a preface, that "none of the distinguished writer's romances compares in vivid description and heart inspiring eloquence with these accounts that she gives of what she has seen with her own eyes of the resurrection of England." The British Government granted Mrs. Ward special opportunities to see what England is doing on the battle front and in the great munition works at home. Her picture of what she saw is far more than a perfunctory sketch of military and naval activities. It is rather a human document, speaking from the very heart of the British nation in this time of stress. Of especial interest is Mrs. Ward's account of the astonishing part played by English women in the equipment and energizing of the nation for its tremendous task.

The First Seven Divisions. By Ernest W. Hamilton. Dutton. 338 pp. \$1.50.

Captain Hamilton, of the Eleventh Hussars, here gives a detailed account of the fighting from Mons to Ypres. His book is valuable not only as an authoritative account of the fortunes of the Allied armies at the most critical period in the war, but also as a professional study in modern strategy and tactics. It is a melancholy reflection that the British Expeditionary Force, whose brilliant exploits are recorded in this book, was practically wiped out of existence within the first three months of the war.

Kitchener's Mob. By James Norman Hall. Houghton, Mifflin. 201 pp. \$1.25.

"Kitchener's Mob" is a graphic, uncensored account of the adventures of an American volunteer, James Norman Hall, in Kitchener's army. In the clamorous days of August, 1914, the volunteers who answered the first calls for troops were nicknamed "Kitchener's Mob." Mr. Hall enlisted on the 18th of August, 1914, in a London regiment that had recruits from all parts of the United Kingdom. Out of the chaos of the early days of mobilization, he watched efficiency assert itself, saw the military machine grow into a coordinated, perfectly working mechanism. His admiration for the rank and file is unstinted. During six months' service in the trenches Private Hall saw only two cases of drunkenness, and never did he see a woman treated discourteously by an English Tommy Atkins. The scenes of actual battle, of hand to hand conflict are described with a simplicity that carries their horror deep into the mind. The officers die according to the class code they have lived by; the Tommy in the trenches dies in a fit of child-like grieved protest that God could bring him to such an end. "Christian nations!" Tommy says scornfully "If this 'ere is a sample o' Christianity, I'll tyke me charnces down below w'en I gets knocked out. . . . They ain't no God 'aving anything to do with this war, I'm telling you. All the religious

blokes in England an' France an' Germany ain't bloking to pray 'im into it."

For the most part these Englishmen of "Kitchener's Mob," lived under the difficult conditions of actual warfare according to the letter written by Kitchener and handed to each member of the regiments ordered abroad, the gist of which was the exercise of energy, courage, and patience, remembering that the honor of the army was the honor of individual conduct. That courtesy and consideration was a duty, and the yielding to excess and temptation, treason. This memorable letter, which Mr. Hall quotes in full ended: "Do your duty bravely. Fear God. Honor the King. KITCHENER, Field Marshal."

They Shall Not Pass. By Frank H. Simonds. Doubleday, Page. 142 pp. \$1.

The famous watchword of the French troops at Verdun has been chosen by Mr. Simonds as the title of his interpretation of the world's greatest battle. Readers of Mr. Simonds' monthly articles in this REVIEW do not need to be reminded of the convincing and inspirational quality of his writings on the war.

Impressions and Experiences of a French Trooper. By Christian Mallet. Dutton. 167 pp. Ill. \$1.

The author of this narrative began as a French private soldier and worked his way up to the rank of lieutenant. He describes the retreat from Belgium, the battle of the Marne, and the attack at Loos. The chief significance of the book is the unconscious revelation that it makes of the unconquerable French spirit.

My Home in the Field of Honor. By Frances Wilson Huard. Doran. 302 pp. \$1.35.

"My Home in the Field of Honor" relates in the compass of a small volume the experiences of Frances Wilson Huard, wife of Charles Huard, official painter of the war to the sixth Army of France during the perilous days of the French retreat in the early days of the war. The home of the Huards is at Villiers, near the Marne River, sixty miles from Paris. While Madame Huard was ministering to the wants of refugees, she received a message from her husband telling her to "evacuate . . . go south, not Paris." The Uhlans had already surrounded Villiers and were waiting for morning to make an attack. The family and servants started at once in a hay cart and the farm drays. The book tells of the adventures of the cortege with those they encountered on the road, of Madame Huard's stops to nurse the wounded, of her great courage amid scenes of frightful panic. When the Germans had been driven back, she returned to her home fourteen days after the time she had left it. The beautiful villa was a ruin. Everything of use had been taken or despoiled in a shameful manner. Even her love letters which she had locked in a desk and wrapped in the Stars and Stripes were scattered over the village. Later the villa was requisitioned as a French Military Hospital, and such it is to-day. The book is delightfully illustrated from sketches by the writer's husband.

Because I Am a German. By Hermann Fernau. Dutton. 159 pp. \$1.

The sensation created by the publication of "J'Accuse," a German attack on the government at Berlin, has not yet been forgotten. Now comes a remarkable defense of that book, also written by a man who declares himself to be "a sincere patriot, born and educated in Prussia, and generally reputed a good Christian and a law-abiding German citizen by the authorities of this country." He proceeds to analyze and reiterate the arguments presented in "J'Accuse."

The German Spirit. By Kuno Francke. Holt. 132 pp. \$1.

Throughout the discussions engendered by the war, the professor of the history of German culture at Harvard, through his breadth of view and tolerance of spirit, has retained the respect of Americans. This little volume presents a view of contemporary Germany which its author hopes "may help Americans to understand better both the sources of enduring German greatness and the reasons why German achievements have so often failed to appeal to Americans."

German Atrocities. By J. H. Morgan. Dutton. 192 pp. \$1.

A collection of evidence regarding the behavior of German troops in the western theater of war, including documentary material not presented in the Bryce report.

The Day of Wrath. By Louis Tracy. Ed. J. Clode. 280 pp. \$1.25.

A novel based, as its author states, on facts given in the official records of Great Britain, France, and Belgium. It is in fact the story of the German invasion of Belgium.

My Secret Service. By the Man Who Dined with the Kaiser. Doran. \$1.

The remarkable narrative of a man who claims to have worked in the Krupp factories, heard Commander Von Hersing tell the story of his submarine voyage to Constantinople, interviewed Enver Pasha, traveled on the first Balkan Express, and, to cap the climax, dined with the Kaiser and King Ferdinand at Nish. The author represents himself as a neutral who was hired by Lord Northcliffe to "scout" for the London *Daily Mail* at Adrianople, Sofia, Vienna, and other points. He denies that he has been a spy or that he ever was officially in England's service.

In the Russian Ranks. By John Morse. Alfred Knopf. 337 pp. \$1.50.

This is a notable war book written by an Englishman, John Morse, who actually fought in the trenches in Poland. It relates the story of his amazing adventures, his flight from Prussia, over the Russian border, in August, 1914, his service in the Czar's army, his capture by the Germans and his daring escape and return to England. The *London Spectator* compares the pictures of human suffering with those incomparable narratives of Tolstoy and Dostoevsky. This book is

one of those that will survive as literature when the actual conflict of the warring nations has faded into an indistinct memory: The portraits of the ordinary Russian soldier are vivid. One gets an idea of what the mysterious Russian army is really like from this book. Mr. Morse sees the Russian soldier as a splendid fellow dogged, courageous if not overly intelligent, a religious man who carries some sacred relic into battle with him, faithful to friends, cruel to enemies. The part of the army known to the author was composed mostly of Siberian peoples with marked Mongolian characteristics; one regiment was composed of Mongolians pure and simple. He regrets that Russia could not at the beginning of the war throw larger armies into the field, and he praises the Russian Cossack cavalry. With more of these intrepid fighters, a larger army of young and vigorous men, and a better system of railways, Germany would have come to an end in six months. But Russia was incapable of providing transportation, food, war materials and artillery for a vast host, therefore she failed. John Morse at the beginning of the war was a man of expert military knowledge and training, who loved war and all that pertained to war. Now he writes: "I loathe it with an ineradicable hate and disgust, and hope never again to see ground crimsoned with blood."

The Problems and Lessons of the War. Edited by George H. Blakeslee. Putnam. 381 pp. \$2.

This volume is made up of twenty-three addresses delivered at Clark University in December last. The foreword is supplied by President G. Stanley Hall, of the University, and an introduction by Prof. George H. Blakeslee. The points of view presented are as varied and numerous as the speakers, who include both advocates and opponents of the policy of preparedness.

What Is Coming? By H. G. Wells. Macmillan. 294 pp. \$1.50.

Mr. Wells has once more been indulging in prophecy, and his forecasts, like his romances, will interest American readers—the more since he devotes a chapter to the future development of the United States, France, Britain, and Russia, predicting that the Americans will be first to avail themselves of the coming business opportunities in Russia and China.

The Things Men Fight For. By H. H. Powers. Macmillan. 382 pp. \$1.50.

A thoughtful consideration of the problem of the hour, with application to present conditions in Europe, by an American who has lived in Paris, Berlin, Italy and Greece, and has frequently traveled through Russia and the Near East. Dr. Powers surveys the entire European situation from the viewpoint of the national patriotism of each of the warring countries.

Hal Who's There? By the Author of "Aunt Sarah." Putnam. 114 pp. 75 cents.

An attempt to summarize and epitomize, in simple, homely language, the spirit and ideals of England in wartime.

POLITICS: GOVERNMENT: ECONOMICS

The Presidency. Three Lectures. By William Howard Taft. Scribner's. 145 pp. \$1.

One of our two living ex-Presidents here outlines the duties, powers and limitations of the Presidential office and makes his exposition doubly graphic by relating incidents from his own experience in the office.

The Federal Executive. By John Philip Hill. Houghton, Mifflin. 269 pp. \$2.

An illuminating study of the growth of the executive power in this country. Of special pertinence at this time are the author's discussion of the executive power in relation to military preparedness and suggestions for adding to the efficiency of the national government.

History and Procedure of the House of Representatives. By De Alva Stanwood Alexander. Houghton, Mifflin. 435 pp. \$2.

The author's long experience as a member of Congress and his special familiarity with the rules of the House of Representatives as developed by speaker Reed enable him to write an authoritative, as well as a systematic and compact treatise on the subject of congressional procedure. One noteworthy feature of the book is the chapter of character studies of the more prominent floor leaders of the House, especially those who figured during the ten years preceding the Civil War. These sketches are based on the personal knowledge of such veteran members of Congress as former Speaker Grow, and others, with whom the author served during several congressional terms.

American Government and Majority Rule. By Edward Elliott, Ph.D. Princeton: Princeton University Press. 175 pp. \$1.25.

It is Dr. Elliott's belief that the greatest hindrance to the attainment of majority rule in the United States has been the form of government through which Americans have been compelled to act. While the people are eager to have the government do more for the social well-being, it is clear that the necessary authority is lacking and that there is no proper equipment to secure an efficient performance of these new tasks. The author suggests that our government must be modified in the direction of greater simplicity.

The American Plan of Government. By Charles W. Bacon. Putnam. 474 pp. \$2.50.

A history of the making of the federal Constitution and its interpretation by the courts.

The Next Step in Democracy. By R. W. Sellars, Ph.D. Macmillan. 275 pp. \$1.50.

An outline of the coming socialistic state as prefigured in the various tendencies now operative in the American democracy. The author discusses the prevalent misconceptions of socialism, the serious objections to it, and the conditions of the social freedom. His point of view is that of the economic evolutions. A chapter is devoted to the effect of the great war on the prospects for international socialism.

The Socialism of To-Day. Edited by W. E. Walling, J. G. Phelps Stokes, Jessie W. Hughan, H. W. Laidler, and others. Holt. 642 pp. \$1.60.

This volume is made up chiefly of original documents showing the present position and recent development of the socialist and labor parties in all countries. The editors of the book, who are members of a committee of the Inter-collegiate Socialist Society, offer it as the first international and comprehensive source book dealing with the socialist movement in any language. Its publication marks a distinct advance in the scientific discussion of the socialist movement.

A Capitalist's View of Socialism. By author of "From Boyhood to Manhood." Introduction by Benjamin Paul Blood. Parke, Austin & Lipscomb. 223 pp. \$1.

The American City. By Henry C. Wright. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 178 pp. \$.50.

An attempt to set forth in very brief compass some of the striking social aspects of American city development. There are chapters on "The Location and Purpose of Cities," "Protection of Property, Life and Health," "Education and Instruction," "Housing, Transit, and Location of Factories," and "The Effect of the City upon Its Citizens." Dr. Wright was formerly of the Russell Sage Foundation and is now first deputy commissioner of the New York City Department of Public Charities.

Alcohol and Society. By John Koren. Holt. 271 pp. \$1.25.

The author of this work is an unbiased investigator who has studied the social control of alcohol as a practical question in every country that has thus far experimented with it. Mr. Koren is an interesting writer and his recent articles on the drink problem in the *Atlantic Monthly* have attracted much attention.

Russian Prohibition. By Ernest Gordon. Westerville, O.: The American Issue Publishing Co. 80 pp. \$.25.

A Honeymoon Experiment. By Margaret and Stuart Chase. Houghton, Mifflin. 159 pp. \$1.

"A Honeymoon Experiment" is a book that will please or disappoint, according to the reader's taste. It is a summary of the unique experiences of Mr. and Mrs. Stuart Chase during the weeks of their honeymoon in Rochester, New York. This young couple decided to take humble house-keeping rooms, live on ten dollars a week, join the ranks of the humble wage-earners, and find out how the other half of the world lives. The first part of the book gives the "Groom's" story, the second part relates the experiences of the "Bride." The Groom applied for ninety-two jobs and investigated twenty-two institutions and "business opportunities." He obtained work finally as an accountant at a wage of five dollars per week. The Bride, during the eight weeks of

the experiment, applied for ninety-two positions and held six as long as strength and circumstances permitted. At the end of this young couple's experiments, they decided that for them it would be better to cease to live than to go on living as the average American worker of small earning capability and precarious employment must live. Their book makes appeal to intelligent, educated people to pay less attention to palliative charity and more attention to the finding of some better way to reorganize the machinery of distribution. There is "enough and more than enough to go 'round. The earth is groaning with the good things of life . . . only we do not understand how to distribute them."

The Woman Movement from the Point of View of Social Consciousness. By Jessie Taft. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press. \$5.50.

A study of the various problems associated with the woman movement, so called, in their relation to the larger, more inclusive social problems of the day.

Civilization and Womanhood. By Harriet B. Bradbury. Boston: Badger. 229 pp. \$1.

A study of the evolution of modern society's attitude toward woman, as traced from prehistoric times.

The Postal Power of Congress. By Lindsay Rogers, Ph.D. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press. 189 pp. \$1.

A study of the federal control of the post-office rather than of the history or efficiency of that arm of the national government.

American and Foreign Investment Bonds. By William L. Raymond. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 324 pp. \$3.

This guide for the investor and the business man discusses the various factors that enter into the intrinsic value of investment bonds. In view of the expectation that the United States may soon become the market for a large amount of foreign government securities, such a work has special timeliness.

Textiles. By Paul H. Nystrom, Ph.D. Appleton's. 335 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

This book describes the source of raw material, the methods of manufacture and distribution, the tests to determine quality, the economic aspects of textiles, and other phases of the subject that are of importance to all who manufacture, sell or use the products of the textile mills. This is one of the series of volumes prepared in the "Extension Division" of the University of Wisconsin.

Irrigation Management. By Frederick Haynes Newell. Appleton. 306 pp. Ill. \$2.

In this volume the former director of the United States Reclamation Service answers practical questions relating to the operation, maintenance and betterment of irrigation works. The book is in fact the result of a series of conferences held by men actively engaged in irrigation projects in our great West.

The School and the Immigrant. By Herbert Adolphus Miller. The Survey Committee of the Cleveland Foundation. Philadelphia: William F. Fell Co.

A valuable report by the Survey Committee of the Cleveland Foundation. It describes the condition of school children in Cleveland, from non-English speaking homes. The efforts of national groups to preserve their languages and the general problem of education for the foreign children. There is also an interesting chapter on "The Adult Immigrant and the School." Copies of the report may be obtained from the Cleveland Foundation and also from the Division of Education of the Russell Sage Foundation, New York City.

The Single-Tax Movement in the United States. By Arthur Nichols Young, Ph.D. Princeton: Princeton University Press. 340 pp. \$1.50.

In collecting the material on which this study of the single-tax movement is based, the author spent several weeks in and around San Francisco securing data regarding the economic background of Henry George's life there. He also personally visited several of the localities where the single-tax movement has been most prominent, including Portland, Ore.; Seattle and Everett, Washington; Chicago, Illinois; Cincinnati, Ohio, and also in Canada, Victoria and Vancouver, B. C., and Edmonton, Alberta.

The Irish Orators. By Claude G. Bowers. Bobbs-Merrill. 258 pp. \$1.50.

"The Irish Orators," a history of Ireland's long fight for freedom, by Claude Bowers, tells the dramatic story of the lives and personalities of nine men who figured in the struggle for Irish nationality from the middle of the eighteenth to the beginning of the present century. They were: Flood, Grattan, Curran, Plunkett, Emmet, O'Connell, Meagher, Butt, and Parnell, the men who tower out of the turmoil of modern Irish political history as beings of superior powers, whose eloquence served to reanimate from time to time the smoldering fires of Irish patriotism. It is impossible not to be inspired and uplifted by the account of the lives of these Irish leaders. Dreams spun in their minds; honey flowed from their tongues. Quotations from their best orations are interspersed with the text, and whatever their faults, there must be accorded them a gift for language that stormed into eloquence of the highest order, undaunted courage, devotion to a great cause and unworldly absorption in lofty ideals. Mr. Bowers' work is comprehensive and scholarly, the most complete book of its kind that is offered the public. He uplifts the portrait of each man as a finely cut cameo, from the basic texture of his times. His secondary object is to emphasize the genius of the Irish race. The secret he thinks gave Parnell so great a hold on the Irish people—the fact that "through the cold exterior of the man they could see the beating of his heart"—is the hold that these Irish orators have upon the present and upon the future generations. Beneath the eloquent portrayal of their daring defense of their principles, beat the hearts of men of flesh and blood, whose sacrifice and fame have imparted luster to the cause of Irish Nationalism.

LANDS AND PEOPLES

China: An Interpretation. By James W. Bashford. Abingdon Press. 620 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

After a residence of twelve years in China Bishop Bashford, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, is probably as well equipped as any American to undertake the task that he has set for himself in this volume—"so to interpret China that American and European readers will understand better the men and forces with which they must deal in the Far East and will appreciate more fully not the mere industrial and commercial qualities of this large section of the human race, but the aspirations, the spiritual aptitudes, and the struggles of our Chinese brothers and sisters." There are chapters on "The Downfall of the Manchus," "The Transition," "The Chinese Republic," "China and Japan," "China and the United States," and "China and the World."

A Merry Banker in the Far East (and South America). By Walter H. Young. Lane. 279 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

After serving for some time on the staff of the Charter Bank of India, Australia, and China, Mr. Young was made general manager in Chile of the Bank of Tarapaca, now the Anglo-South American Bank. From this volume of Mr. Young's experiences one may not expect to gain very profound knowledge of banking methods either in the Far East or in South America, but his pages are entertaining and diverting, picturing as they do varied phases of social life in two continents.

Railway Expansion in Latin America. By Frederick M. Halsey. Moody Book Company. 170 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

Mr. Halsey has prepared the first connected account of the origin and development of South and Central American railroad systems. Besides the thrilling story of the mastering of tremendous engineering difficulties, this little book supplies useful and fresh information regarding the investments in Latin-American railroads of European capital. There are numerous illustrations in half-tone, and four insert maps.

Black Sheep. By Jean Kenyon Mackenzie. Houghton, Mifflin. 314 pp. \$1.50.

"Black Sheep" is a delightful and unique record of the experiences and adventures of Jean Kenyon Mackenzie, a worker in the Presbyterian mission field in West Africa from 1904 to 1913. The ten years preceding the war was an era of great missionary development of this district. Self-support was the major intention. At Elat there was a fair-sized industrial plant; ten thousand pupils were at work in the various schools. Medical work progressed amazingly; health, sanitation and progress followed the efforts of the sixty white missionaries and their corps of four hundred black assistants. The writer of this book holds herself fortunate to have been in a measure helpful to this work of civilization, and she has written of her life in Africa and of the people there with rare understanding and sympathy; also with color and a vivid sense of the beauty of tropical landscape and the picturesqueness of the natives. The material was originally

prepared in the form of letters home, therefore it has the effect of an intermittent diary of her life during the eleven years of her labor. It is impossible in a few words to describe the freshness, the charm and interest of this unusual book. The author has the gift of getting under the skin of the African nature, of literally "seeing black."

Domestic Life in Rumania. By Dorothea Kirke. John Lane. 291 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

Since the Balkan countries remain largely in the lime-light, a book by Dorothea Kirke, "Domestic Life in Rumania," will please readers who like descriptions of life that is completely strange to our ideas. Her narrative is given in the form of letters from "La Nurse," in a prominent Rumanian family, to her cousin in England. They are bright, witty, vivid impressions that include an account of a journey to Constantinople and of holidays in Sinai in the Carpathians. The chapter that records the excursion to the Pestera Monastery gives a delightful picture of the wild mountain life and the awe-inspiring beauty of this out-of-the-way corner of the earth with its "bizarre rocks, the forests with their contrasts of tender green and dark, almost black, shades against the delicate blue of the cloudless sky."

A Month in Rome. By André Maurel. Translated by Helen Gerard. Putnam. 401 pp. Ill. \$1.75.

It is probably true that most visitors to Rome see little more than what the guide-books point out and describe for them. The reader of M. Maurel's book will have open before him long avenues leading to treasures of which the guide-books never speak. His book is indeed a revelation of Roman art at its best, as it has impressed itself upon the mind of a Frenchman.

Russian and Nomad. By E. Nelson Fell. Duffield. 201 pp. Ill. \$2.

These tales of the Kirghiz Steppes, part of the Central Asiatic plateau, were written by an Englishman who was for eleven years in charge of the works of a large mining company in that region. This borderland between Russia and Asia has been little visited by Europeans. It is a land of severe winters and hot summers. Mr. Fell found both the Russians and the Kirghiz genial and hospitable, and soon became thoroughly familiar with the languages and customs of both peoples. His is one of the few books in English that give any satisfactory description of that portion of the Russian possessions.

Rambles in the Vaudese Alps. By F. S. Salisbury. Dutton. 154 pp. Ill. \$1.

Valuable for the descriptions of Alpine flowers, as well as some of the less familiar mountain scenery of the Vaud region.

The Wonders of the Jungle. By Prince Sarah Ghosh. Book I. Heath. 190 pp. Ill. 48 cents.

In this little book are described those animals that especially appeal to the interest of young children. The main scientific facts and principles concerning each animal are woven into the narrative as a part of their daily life. The present

work is intended to be a supplementary reader for the earlier grades in grammar schools.

Through Glacier Park. By Mary Roberts Rinehart. Houghton, Mifflin. 92 pp. Ill. 75 cents.

An account of the recent horseback trip taken by Mrs. Rinehart through the newly opened National Park in the northern Rockies. This record of Mrs. Rinehart's travels may be profitably used as a guide-book to the wonderful mountain scenery that she describes.

The Latchstring to Maine Woods and Waters. By Walter Emerson. Houghton, Mifflin. 229 pp. Ill. \$2.

Almost every member of the large and growing summer population of Maine will find in this book a reference to some familiar scene.

For the benefit of the sportsman there are chapters devoted to fishing and hunting, and the varied opportunities for recreation are attractively set forth in a chapter entitled "Camp and Canoe."

The Tourist's Northwest. By Ruth Kedzie Wood, F. R. G. S. Dodd, Mead & Co. 528 pp. Ill. \$1.75.

An admirable guide-book for the northwest of the United States, and Canada. Puget Sound, the Columbia River, the Cascades, Portland, Tacoma, Seattle, the National Glacier Park, and practically all points of interest in the States of Idaho, Washington and Oregon are fully described, while there are chapters on the Canadian Rockies, the Selkirks, Vancouver Island, and the whole Canadian northwest. The information regarding railroad and steamship routes and hotels has all been brought closely up to date.

AMERICAN HISTORY

Travels in the American Colonies. By Newton D. Mereness. Macmillan. 693 pp. \$3.

A collection of hitherto unpublished manuscripts describing journeys made by their authors in the period 1690-1783. There are accounts of experiences in travel on the Atlantic slope from Savannah to Albany; from Albany to Niagara Falls, Quebec, Hartford, and Boston; through the Great Lakes from Detroit to Chicago; up the Mississippi from New Orleans to St. Louis; down the Ohio and the Mississippi from Pittsburgh to New Orleans; up the Tennessee, through the country of the Choctaws, the Creeks, and the Cherokees, and through the backwoods from Pennsylvania to North Carolina. Colonial life is vividly pictured in these narratives.

The Great Revival in the West, 1797-1805. By Catharine C. Cleveland. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 215 pp. \$1.

Although there are many allusions in the histories to what was generally known as the Kentucky Revival, at the close of the eighteenth century, this volume contains the first connected story of the episode. It describes the religious condition of the West prior to 1800, analyzes the teachings and methods of the revival leaders, and gives a concise account of the spread of the revival and its culmination. There are maps showing the distribution of population in 1800 and the approximate locations of Presbyteries, Baptist associations, and Methodist circuits. The concluding chapter is a sane and well-considered estimate of the results of the movement.

Dimadale's Vigilantes of Montana. By A. J. Noyes. Helena, Mont.: State Publishing Co. 290 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

The "Vigilantes," who cleared Montana of "road agents" in 1864-65, were never as widely known as their predecessors of San Francisco, but the importance of their services in the early history of their territory was relatively quite as great. The whole story was told by a contemporary, Thomas J. Dimadale, in 1865, and the

third edition of his work, edited by A. J. Noyes, together with a history of southern Montana, is included in the present volume.

Chronicles of the White Mountains. By Frederick W. Kilbourne. 434 pp. Ill. \$2.

Notwithstanding the great number of guides to the White Mountain region the recent literature of the mountains has not been developed on the side of history. This apparent gap is filled by Mr. Kilbourne's volume, which begins with the Indian legends of the mountains, describes the work of the early explorers and settlers, then continues the story down to the present day. There are numerous well-printed illustrations and two maps.

Pittsburgh: A Sketch of Its Early Social Life. By Charles W. Dahlinger. Putnam's. 216 pp. Ill. \$1.25.

As the principal stopping place in the journey from the East to the Mississippi valley in early days, the settlement at Pittsburgh had special prominence and developed a distinctive social life. The story of the settlement in its formative period (1750-1800), and its development in the early decades of the nineteenth century, as based on newspaper and other contemporary accounts, is clearly set forth by Mr. Dahlinger, and is of more than local interest.

The Citizen's Book. Edited by Charles R. Hebble and Frank P. Goodwin. Cincinnati: Stewart & Kidd. 242 pp. Ill. \$1.25.

Under the auspices of the Cincinnati Chamber of Commerce this book has been prepared as a source of information regarding the settlement and early history of the city of Cincinnati, its community life, its government, and its institutions. It contains much material never before brought together in a single volume.

The Heritage of Tyre. By William Brown Meloney. Macmillan. 180 pp. Ill. 50 cents.

A striking and vivid narrative of the rise of the American merchant marine and its culmination in the days of the clipper ships.

THE GREAT OUT-OF-DOORS

Let Us Go Afield. By Emerson Hough. Appleton. 319 pp. Ill. \$1.25.

A manual of advice to campers and sportsmen especially suggested to big game hunters in the west.

The Determined Angler and the Brook Trout. By Charles Bradford. Putnam's. 161 pp. Ill. \$1.

A description of the approved methods used in the taking of trout, the varieties of tackle employed, and the places where the best trout are to be found.

Modern Swimming. By J. H. P. Brown. Boston. Small, Maynard & Co. 181 pp. Ill. \$1.

A practical manual by an experienced and successful instructor in swimming. For the benefit of expert swimmers there are chapters on the various new strokes.

How to Know the Mosses. By Elizabeth Marie Dunham. Houghton, Mifflin. 287 pp. Ill. \$1.25.

A popular guide to the mosses of the north-

eastern Atlantic States, containing keys to eighty genera and short descriptions of over one hundred and fifty species, with special reference to the distinguishing characteristics that are apparent without the aid of a lens. The subject is presented in a simple, non-technical way.

Under the Apple-Trees. By John Burroughs. Houghton, Mifflin. 316 pp. Ill. \$1.25.
A charming blend of nature study and philosophy.

Marooned in the Forest. By A. Hyatt Verrill. Harper. 229 pp. Ill. \$1.25.

The story of a modern Robinson Crusoe in the far northern forest, embodying many actual experiences and epitomizing the basic facts of outdoor life.

War Path and Hunting Trail. By Elmer Russell Gregor. Harper. 203 pp. Ill. 60 cents.

A series of thrilling adventures of Indian boys. The author tries to picture the Indian as he actually was, not as he appears in the pages of Cooper's novels.

BOOKS THAT STIMULATE HEALTH OF MIND AND BODY

PERHAPS the most sensible advice one can take on one's vacation is the content of George Wharton James' helpful book, "Quit Your Worrying." This book is written in a sensible, straightforward fashion and is plentifully sprinkled with touches of humor. It discusses the various causes of worry and gives suggestions for their banishment. You can't change a worrying person suddenly into a well-poised, serene person, but the author believes that with faith in God, trust, and naturalness, we can slough off worry like the dead skin of the serpent and find the way of highest achievement.

"Living the Radiant Life," another good book by Mr. James, asks the question of us: "What are we radiating?" If you want to learn to radiate health, vitality, energy, happiness, serenity, and spiritual power, this book will help you to find a way to do it. It is a cool wind of health carrying to weary humanity the stimulation of new possibilities, of our spiritual, mental and physical life here on earth.

"The Influence of Joy," by George Van Ness Dearborn, is issued in the "Mind and Health Series" as a "scientific exposition of both the mechanism and the significance of the basic emotion with which it deals." Very few people realize the therapeutic value of happiness, the actual reality of the influence of joy on the body. Ill health is, generally speaking, the re-

sult of a sudden deprivation of joy, or a long-continued sufferance of the factors that rob us of permanent happiness. We have had many books that from different points of view approximate the teachings of this volume, but few that approach the subject in a scientific spirit sufficient to convince the practical person that an alliance with joy is the best rejuvenating influence to be found in the world. The author is instructor in psychology and education in the Sargent Normal School at Cambridge, Massachusetts.

"Body and Spirit" is an inquiry into the subconscious, by John D. Quackenbos, M.D., based on the many experiences in psychotherapy occurring in the author's practise, since the efficacy of suggestion in the treatment of physical and mental disorders has become a medical certainty. This valuable work deals with the use of suggestion, with telepathy, prescience and transcendental psychic phenomena, and closes with a chapter on the psychologic proof of immortality, the glimpse we may gain through reason of a "rational heaven."

Emerson said that the hardest task in the world was "to think." One of the most valuable books recently published is "Thinking as a Science," by Henry Hazlitt. He shows us that in these days of easy educational facilities, our minds have

¹Quit Your Worrying. By George Wharton James. Baker-Taylor Co. 262 pp. \$1.

²The Influence of Joy. By George Van Ness Dearborn. Little, Brown. 223 pp. \$1.

³Body and Spirit. By John D. Quackenbos, M.D. Harper & Bros. 282 pp. \$1.50.

⁴Thinking as a Science. By Henry Hazlitt. E. P. Dutton Co. 251 pp. \$1.

grown lazy; we run to a book, or to a specialist with every petty problem, and neglect to cultivate real hard independent thinking. The author recommends a list of helpful books for those who are anxious to become scientific thinkers.

"How to Add Ten Years to Your Life,"¹ and incidentally to double its satisfactions, is told in a convenient handbook by S. S. Curry. Most books on like subjects are apt to be vague. Mr. Curry's book gives exact instructions as to how to start right each morning, what exercise to practise, how to breathe, work, play, study, get into harmony with the life forces, and to facilitate in all ways the highest human development.

"Side-stepping Ill-Health"² is a most useful book to have in the home. It is a simply written book of sensible advice by an able practising physician, Edwin F. Bowers, M.D. The chapters on insomnia and on the care of the teeth are worth the price of the book. Other subjects treated in successive chapters include: Colds and their causes, coughs, that "tired feeling," headaches, nerves, corpulency, rheumatism, typhoid, children's diseases, the quest of beauty, and exposition of the newly discovered form of analgesia used by Doctor William H. Fitzgerald, of Hartford, Connecticut. The author approves of the public having the knowledge that many painful disorders will yield to pressure on certain nerve centers more easily than to drugs, narcotics and the surgeon's knife.

"Principles of Health Control,"³ by Francis M. Waters, Professor of Physiology and Hygiene in the State Normal School, at Warrensburg, Missouri, presents a study of hygiene with all the emphasis placed upon corrective work. His thesis is the well-known quotation from Herbert Spencer,

that "To be a good animal is the first requisite to success in life, and to be a nation of good animals is the first condition to national prosperity." The author rightly contends that since modern life tends to impair the physical organism, there should be instilled into the minds of the masses a thorough knowledge of defense against the inroads of disease. From individual health control he proceeds to the larger aspect of national health control, and the problems America must face in husbanding her resources of public health. While this volume is primarily a text-book, it will not fail to interest everyone who wishes to possess a healthy body and mind.

"Who Is Insane?"⁴ a new gospel of the prevention and cure of insanity, will commend itself to the general reader. It is based on sound knowledge and years of experience. Its author, Stephen Smith, M.D., was formerly Commissioner of Lunacy in the State of New York, and the book is a commentary upon his work in the institutions for the insane and the charities and reformatories of the State. It illustrates the illusive nature of insanity, its origin in the functioning of illy balanced brain cells, the scientific principles on which the prevention of insanity and its successful treatment must be based; and an argument that the same principles must be applied to the reform of criminals and to the mentally defective. Just "who is insane," has long been a difficult question to decide. All people easily detect the mental aberrations of others and utterly fail to perceive their own defects. It has long been admitted that genius is allied to madness. It is of great importance that one should learn to gauge mental integrity intelligently by a correct standard, and for this purpose Dr. Smith's book may be highly recommended.

NOVELS AND STORIES

IT is gratifying to note the republication of the stories of H. C. Bunner,⁵ that veteran storyteller whose work has ever been in popular demand. Two volumes are issued containing twenty-two stories, introduced with a short preface, by way of a memoir, by Brander Matthews. They include such gems of story-telling as "The Midge," "The Zadoc Pine Labor Union," "The Story of a New York House," and "Mrs. Tom's Spree." Professor Matthews gives briefly the facts of Bunner's life. He was born at Oswego, N. Y., on August 3, 1855, and died at Nutley, N. J., on May 11, 1896. His schooling was a disappointment to him in that he was not able to enter Columbia College after having prepared for a college course. After a short business career he became a newspaper man and when *Puck* began to be published in English, he became its editor, and it was due to his judgment

and taste, together with a keen appreciation of the sources and appreciation of humor in the native American character, that the first American comic weekly became a success. Bunner wrote much agreeable light verse, but it was his gift for writing short stories that brought him fame, and keeps his memory green with his many admirers. He is one of the few writers who help us to remember the old landmarks of New York that were long since swept away. For pathos, for charm, insight, natural grace and sentiment, Bunner is still unequalled by the writers of the younger generation. Professor Matthews says that his stories, any of them, bear comparison with those of Hawthorne, Poe, Bret Harte and Cable, that "they are novel in topic, fresh in atmosphere, individual in treatment and ingenious in construction." One may add the definition of another quality—a subtle differentiation of the natives of the States, the descendants of the original settlers, as a people possessed of ideals peculiar to themselves, which are of such inherent power that their potentiality can withstand all attacks of forces that would destroy nationality. He makes us conscious of ourselves first as human beings, who must live in neighborly relations to one another, secondly as Americans, whose destiny is immutably interwoven with the soil that bore them. This is his power,

¹ How to Add Ten Years to Your Life. By S. S. Curry. School of Expression Co. (Boston.) 134 pp. \$1.

² Side-Stepping Ill Health. By Edwin F. Bowers, M.D. Little, Brown. \$1.35.

³ Principles of Health Control. By Francis M. Waters, D. C. Heath & Co. 476 pp. \$1.50.

⁴ Who Is Insane? By Stephen Smith, M.D. Macmillan. 285 pp. \$1.25.

⁵ The Stories of H. C. Bunner. Two vols. Scribner's. 806 pp. \$1.25 per vol.

and this also is the fragrance that rises like a penetrating fine mist from the pages of the old tales. It is to be hoped that we shall soon have a third series of the Bunner stories to add to the present edition.

"What are the pregnant changes going on in England that will bear fruit after the war is over?" is the question asked and answered in "The King's Men,"¹ a story of England in war time, by John Palmer. The book does not carry the reader to the actual scenes of conflict. The drama of the war is played off stage. Mr. Palmer gives us in a simple unpretentious narrative the feeling that had brought about the transformation of the minds of the young men of England since the beginning of the war. The distinction of this book lies in its sheer earnestness. "The King's Men" are those who serve life's high purposes at home or at the "front," who cry when the pomp and glory of the world is dissolved in blood and tears, not "This is the end of everything," but "This is only the beginning." The author thinks it is impossible to picture England as the war will leave her, but that his book is a thesis of what is going to be the *spirit* of England after the war, the outcome of the revolution that is going on in two out of every three English homes.

Many people who read of the mountain feuds of Kentucky cherish the idea that the mountaineers are akin to uncivilized savages. "The Red Debt,"² by Everett MacDonald, presents a sympathetic perspective on the causes, both hereditary and environmental, that have produced their crimes of passion and revenge. It is a splendid, big, strong story of Old Captain Lutts of Moon Mountain, Kentucky, his stalwart sons, the "revenuers," and of his beautiful adopted daughter, "Belle Ann." The author knows the creeds of these mountaineers, the insulation of their proud spirits with their own particular faiths; he feels their rights and their wrongs and their passionate love of kith and kin. Splendid descriptions of the wild beauty of the Kentucky highlands add glory to this poignant chronicle.

One must understand the peculiar genius of the eminent French writer, Paul Bourget, to fully appreciate his latest work, "The Night Cometh,"³ a story of opposing conceptions of the meaning of death placed against the background of the war. One may not call Bourget a great writer, but he has been fluent and easily productive, and he has followed the delicate filaments of his inspirations with rare diligence. He has more than thirty volumes of fiction to his credit that sustain a high level of excellence, and he has been a great influence for good with the masses, by his respect for virtue, his love of beauty, and the ardor of his religious faith.

In "The Night Cometh," we find Michael Ortegue, an orthodox scientist and a great surgeon facing death, and that which to him is the greater calamity, separation from his young wife with whom he is profoundly in love. Ortegue is an atheist, and he urges his wife to make a death pact with him. Opposed to the scientific and materialistic Ortegue, is the young wounded

officer, Le Gallic, Madame Ortegue's cousin, who believes in the unknown, in the formulae of religion, as firmly as Ortegue disbelieves. In the narration of final passion of death—two deaths so strangely contrasted—Bourget rises to the climax of rare artistic creation. One feels that Catherine Ortegue is *France* hesitating between her loyalty to science and the religious nostalgia that the war has poured into her heart. Bourget questions whether death has not a significance elsewhere than on earth. To Ortegue death was a catastrophic phenomenon; to Le Gallic a consummation. Which of these two hypotheses is utilizable? Bourget writes—and here we must remember the fact of his own religious conversion—that no one can prove experimentally that the faith of religious belief in the future is not well founded. Our very pain "in the search after truth is a prayer. When we feel the need of God, it is because He is quite close to us."

"Fulfillment,"⁴ by Emma Wolf, is a story of a great romance and of the unalterable ideals of a love-marriage based upon the essential realities of character. It is convincing, idealistic, and breathes the best of our traditions of true Americanism as expressed in the family life. Gwen Heath, the beautiful undisciplined girl-wife; Deborah, who typifies "Law and Order," and George Leland, the chivalrous son of a perfect mother, weave the story unto a happy ending after days of storm and tumult. The author is to be congratulated upon her artistry and clear vision of the eternal verities, that alone can feed and prosper the human soul.

Zane Grey continues to give us the flavor of the wild life in the West as it existed half a century ago. "The Border Legion"⁵ is a thrilling romance of love and adventure among a band of Western outlaws in Southern Idaho in the days when the rush for gold peopled the region beyond the Missouri with strange and lawless characters. Joan Randle quarrels with her lover, and in a fit of pique he runs away to join the Border Bandits, Kells and Gulden. Joan goes in pursuit of her lover and is captured and kidnapped by Kells. From this point onwards, the action is fast and furious. Not for an instant does the story lag or fail in interest. Love, danger, and breathless adventure run a swift race through the pages. The finest character from an artistic point of view is Kells, the bandit who rescues Joan and redeems his own soul.

In view of the recent stimulation of interest in Irish literature caused by the ill-fated Irish Rebellion, "The Portion of a Champion,"⁶ by Francis O'Sullivan tighé, will please those who care for stories of the heroic age in Ireland. Conal, the son of a chieftain, starts out with proper equipage to win his fortune. His father places upon him three *geasa*, or prohibitions—never to refuse a feast or entertainment, never to allow a single man to pass first before him through a ford, never to omit to claim the highest seat and the choicest portion if the option is given him. Conal has many adventures, and he woos the beautiful Etain in the course of the great march of the Irish army under King Dathi the Quick-with-Weapons, through Gaul and

¹ The King's Men. By John Palmer. Putnams. 311 pp. \$1.35.

² The Red Debt. By Everett MacDonald. G. W. Dillingham. 334 pp. \$1.25.

³ The Night Cometh. By Paul Bourget. Putnams. 312 pp. \$1.35.

⁴ Fulfillment. By Emma Wolf. Holt. 397 pp. \$1.35.

⁵ The Border Legion. By Zane Grey. Harper. 366 pp. \$1.35.

⁶ The Portion of a Champion. By Francis O'Sullivan tighé. Scribners. 368 pp. \$1.35.

Italy, where their progress is broken by battles with the Hun, the Gauls and the Roman legions. In the chronology of ancient Irish kings, King Dathi is set down as reigning in the year 405 of the Christian era, following the reign of Nial of the Nine Hostages, who also invaded Gaul. The legend relates that King Dathi was killed by a flash of lightning at the foot of the Alps, after his followers had destroyed the hermitage of a recluse named Parmenius.

"Our Miss York"¹ is a good novel for vacation time. It is the romance of a girl who has a genius for business—combines business brains with beauty and charm. She succeeds in gratifying all her ambitions; her deals resolve fortunately as if by magic. At the height of her business success, she falls in love. What happens? Does business fly out of the window when love knocks at the door? Edward Bateman Morris, the author, answers the question in the final decision of the heroine, who for all her business success was a very fascinating human kind of a girl. A bright, amusing, unusual book.

Thomas Dixon's vivid, powerful novel, "The

Fall of a Nation,"² sketches briefly what might happen to the United States if nothing should be done in the matter of national defense. The action takes place in the future—years after the collapse of the Great War in 1917. America has become glutted with prosperity, and around the coffers of her wealth there are no safeguards of defense. She is attacked by traitors within and by the armies of the Federated Empires of Northern and Central Europe. Defense, owing to unpreparedness, becomes a pitiful farce. In a few weeks, the Republic of the United States ceases to exist and the States become "Imperial Colonies." The remainder of the book tells the story of the ingenious plotting by the conquered Americans which finally results in the victory over the enemy and the reestablishment of the Republic. Fantastic and improbable as are the events and puppets of the book, it serves a distinct and worthy purpose. It protests against the corruption of materialism, against the political corruption of legislatures and municipalities, courts, and Congress; it shows us that the Great War must sweep away the old régime not only in Europe, but in this country, if we are to survive as a nation, free and independent.

An Amiable Charlatan. By E. Phillips Oppenheim. Boston: Little, Brown. 302 pp. Ill. \$1.30.

Joseph H. Bundercombe, a wealthy American, goes to England with his daughter, Eve. He finds amusement going about under an assumed name, associating with criminals, in various disguises, and getting himself watched by Scotland Yard. Mr. Oppenheim works the story out in a masterly way that will appeal to all lovers of that type of fiction.

The Diamond from the Sky. By Roy L. McCardell. Dillingham. 440 pp. Ill. \$1.35.

A sensational romantic novel that will hold the reader spellbound from the first chapter to the last. Freshly phrased, vigorous, picturesque, and intensely dramatic.

The Bywonner. By F. E. Mills Young. Lane. 351 pp. \$1.35.

A fine, thoughtful story of South Africa, in which the life of a successful English farmer is contrasted with the well-to-do Dutch and the

"poor white." The latter, an Englishman, an Oxford man, has been brought down by drink to the position of a "bywonner," an overseer on a Boer farm. The life stories of his children, Tom and Adela, provide both the tragedy and the romance of this exceptional novel.

The Hermit Doctor of Gaya. By I. A. R. Wylie. Putnam. 554 pp. Ill. \$1.35.

A story of Anglo-Indian life that brings to light a hero who fights nobly against famine and disease, and a heroine of great character and personality. A novel of intensity, power and fine literary artistry.

Father Bernard's Parish. By Florence Olmstead. Scribner's. 302 pp. \$1.25.

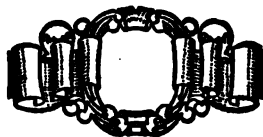
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Journeys with Jerry the Jarvey. By Alexis Roche. Dutton. 318 pp. \$1.35.

A chuckling, whimsical story of an Irish jaunting-car driver. A splendid book for vacation reading.

¹Our Miss York. By Edward Bateman Morris. 352 pp. \$1.25.

²The Fall of a Nation. By Thomas Dixon. Appletons. 362 pp. \$1.35.



FINANCIAL NEWS

I.—THE JULY DISBURSEMENTS AND THRIFT

THERE are two great profit-distributing periods, viz., January and July. Some idea of the current prosperity of the country may be gained from the size of the payments of interest and dividends in these months. Last January over \$250,000,000 was paid out to bond and stockholders, a much larger sum than ever before at that date. In the time that has elapsed since, there have been a greater number of dividend increases and resumpions on stocks of corporations than were ever made before in a corresponding period, and the aggregate amount of money which they represented runs into the tens of millions. Therefore, while July normally is a much smaller month than January in the sum divided up among security holders, it should realize for them this year over \$200,000,000.

Enhanced Spending Power

Some idea of the movement for profit-sharing may be had in the statement that in the past twelve months no less than 300 instances have occurred where dividends have been restored, or raised, or initial payments made, and the American investor has gained thereby something like \$275,000,000. And there seems to be no end to this, for week after week a score or more additions are made to the list. One reason why the spending power of many individuals has doubled and trebled since the war is that securities which had been unproductive for years are now paying big dividends and selling at market values far beyond the range of previous imagination. It has happened in more than one case that stocks listed as "obsolete" have been resurrected and given a very good rating, and some "wall paper" has come to have value as collateral in bank loans.

There are plenty of indications that the abnormal dividends of the times are being distributed, in turn, by recipients in manifold ways. Never before have the imports of jewels been so large as now. For the fiscal year to June 30 they will amount to \$50,000,000. It is true that this is partially due to the closing of Belgian and French markets to the trade, but it mainly expresses

the ability of the American public to deck itself in richer array. Those who cater to the creature comforts of life and to those things which were formerly regarded as luxuries and now as necessities find it difficult to supply the demand. In spite of the stimulation of automobile production, there are many buyers waiting wearily through lovely spring days for the delivery of their favorite makes.

Increased Bank Deposits

One turns from this record of the spend-thrifts to the figures of the Comptroller of the Currency which have lately been published. These show that in the year to May 1, 1916, the deposits of the national banks of the United States increased \$2,243,000,000. This does not take into account the deposits of trust companies, State banks, or savings banks. So far as figures are available from the different States, there has not been a very large savings-bank deposit gain aside from that which reflects the accumulation of interest on deposits. The era of full employment in the industrial sections of the country did not begin until the fall of 1915, and even later in the Middle West and South, so it will not be until the totals for 1916 are compiled that one can indicate whether the moderate-salaried man or the artisan is saving from his higher wages. The national bank deposits in a majority of instances represent the funds of corporations which are subject to quick withdrawal in the event of larger business demands.

The Need of a Thrift Propaganda

There used to be a saying in the South that more money was saved when cotton sold at a moderate price—say, 9 or 10 cents a pound, which would permit a fair margin of profit to the planter—than when it reached a figure several cents a pound higher. In the one case it prompted caution in personal expenditures, and in the other extravagances that not only absorbed the additional gain, but led to permanent habits of living that were beyond the reach of the average individual. This is undoubtedly true to-day, when money comes so easily to many work-

ers. Take, for instance, the relation between incomes embraced within the first group of those taxable under the income-tax law, and the number of automobiles at present licensed in this country. There are 275,000 individuals showing a \$4000 income at the beginning of 1916 and 2,200,000 automobiles in use. If we subtract those automobiles that have a commercial function, which "pay their keep," so to speak, there are still legions that are owned for pleasure purposes and by those who cannot possibly save much each year on the basis of their necessary expenses. In mass the figures which societies for thrift have compiled showing the money that goes into candy, soda water, chewing gum, moving pictures, etc., are formidable, but on a per capita basis they are not very alarming. These are not fixed or arbitrary charges and can be regulated to the current earnings, as in most cases they are. The same is true of the item of dress, which fluctuates in the individual budget in a fairly proper ratio with income.

It is obvious that the creed of the day is not taken from "Poor Richard's Almanack." It is also true that after years of propaganda the American has not acquired the habits of thrift of the peoples of continental Europe, of which the French set the example for the rest of the world. The sum of \$50 or \$100 still seems too small to invest in an interest-bearing security at a rate of return which recommends the investment as secure. It is by these small units, however, that many respectable fortunes have been acquired and competences built up for those days when earning capacity steadily contracts. The writer never passes a certain institution in New York which exhibits a lesson in thrift in its window without being amazed at the ease with which it is recorded there that a "competency" may be founded in the setting aside of no more than \$5 a week. Interest compounds very quickly into principal of respectable proportions.

A very excellent habit to acquire is to reinvest the income of securities, mortgages, etc., which may not be required in the payment of ordinary running expenses. Enter it in a savings-bank account until it reaches an amount at which a good \$500 or \$1000 bond may be purchased, and then withdraw in favor of the higher return this gives.

Thus interest is earning interest as soon as it is paid over to the investor. A man who had \$2500 a year above his requirements adopted this plan and in ten years found he had saved considerably over \$30,000. Invested at 5 or 6 per cent., this produced a "competency" large enough to carry him through another ten-year period of reduced salary, even with the extra burdens of college educations for his children and heavy doctors' bills for himself.

Safe Investments for Surplus Income

This is a most propitious time for the wage-earner, salaried man, or man with a profession, as well as for the merchant with a good business, to consider the question of laying up for a rainy day. The joy of life can be just as great while we are saving a percentage of income as when it is being spent to the last penny. It is not necessary to deny ourselves all the conveniences and creature comforts in order to save a portion. Out of the abundance of the times a larger number should be averaging against the inevitable leaner periods of the future. They have the opportunity now to acquire securities of highest grade at prices giving the greatest average yield in a decade. The man who does not put his capital to a use that will return him $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. exhibits poor stewardship. More than this even can be had with careful selection and watchfulness.

The securities which we would recommend for fair yield and safety are real-estate mortgages on developed property, guaranteed real-estate mortgages, municipal bonds, first-mortgage railroad bonds of selected properties, and also the prior liens of well-operated and well-located public utilities, and preferred stocks of railroads and industrials in good repute. It is always well to carry a moderate percentage of one's investment fund in bank, where it may be quickly available for the investment opportunity which frequently develops in the market and which so many miss on account of funds not being liquid at the moment when prices are low. There is just now great temptation to invest surplus incomes in speculative securities on account of their high yield and possibilities of appreciation. This is the surest way of undermining an investment ideal, if not of losing the principal available.

II.—INVESTORS' QUERIES AND ANSWERS

No. 747. EASTERN AND WESTERN MUNICIPALS

I have become interested in municipal bonds for the investment of some funds which I have available and have been told that Western issues of such bonds yield more, as a rule, than those having their origin in the East. Is this true?

It is. To give you an idea of the difference between Eastern and Western municipal bonds in this respect, we mention a few issues of each class listed recently among the offerings of two thoroughly reliable investment banking firms:

	Per Ct.
Eastern Municipals	Buffalo, N. Y., 4½'s..... 3.90
	Lawrence County, Ohio, 5's..... 4.
	Milwaukee, Wis., 4½'s..... 3.95
	Olyphant, Pa., 5's..... 4.15
Western Municipals	Galveston, Texas, 5's..... 4.75
	Chittenden County, Ark., D.D., 6's 5.25
	Marshall, Okla., 6's..... 5.55
	Palo, Pinto County, Texas, 6's.. 5.50

The foregoing examples are intended, of course, to give only a general idea of the kinds of bonds between which there is a noticeable difference in income yield. There are of course a great many Western municipals, especially those of the larger centers of population, that sell to yield little, if any more than the issues of well-known Eastern municipalities. A large class of bonds having its origin in the West for which there seems to be a steadily growing demand among investors to whom the question of yield is an important one, is made up of drainage district issues. Many of these have practically all of the characteristics of municipal bonds, but in selecting them for investments, it is well to inquire carefully about the features of the State laws under which they are issued.

No. 748. WHAT IF YOUR INVESTMENT BANKER FAILS?

Suppose I buy bonds from a bank or investment house which afterward fails or goes out of business. What recourse would I have in collecting the interest and principal of my investment?

Your recourse would be to the corporation that issued the bonds. The safety of a bond investment depends always in final analysis upon the strength and integrity of the issuing corporation, or in the case of bonds secured by mortgage, upon the character of the mortgaged property. If the banking house from which an issue of corporation bonds had been purchased were to fail, or to go out of business for any reason, it is obvious that the underlying security for the bond would not be affected and that there would be no practical difficulty, everything else being equal, in the way of collecting interest regularly through some other channel. This is true of mortgage investment, as it is a corporation bond investment.

There is no obligation on the part of bankers whose business is the distribution of investment securities, except to investigate the merits of the securities in the first instance, and to keep in touch with the affairs of the issuing corporations in the interest of their investing clients throughout the life of the securities they sell. It is to

the interest of every banking house of recognized standing to have satisfied clients, and there are a few such houses that will not be found ready abundantly to fulfill their moral obligation, in order to attain this end.

No. 749. SOME RECENT OFFERINGS OF \$100 BONDS IN THE GENERAL MARKET

I have saved a few hundred dollars which I am desirous of investing in small denomination bonds, and I should like to have you give me an idea of the kind of opportunities for such investment I would find at the present time.

From a list of one hundred dollar bonds recently offered in the general market, we take the following issues, which show a fairly wide diversity as to type, quality and price:

	Offering Price
American Tel. & Telegraph Col. Trust 4's	93
Anglo-French 5's	96¾
Argentine Government 5's	91
Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul Conv. 5's	109
Chesapeake and Potomac Telephone 5's	98¾
Denver Gas & Electric first 5's	99
Laclede Gas first 5's	102½
Montana Power first and refunding 5's	98½
Southern Pacific San Francisco Term. 4's	85¾
Seaboard Airline 6's	100

No. 750. COLLATERAL NOTES AND TRUST FUND INVESTMENT

I am sending you a description of some collateral trust notes and would like to have you tell me whether they would be acceptable for the investment of trust funds where the trustee must report annually to the Probate Court.

In our opinion there are no securities of this general type that are suitable investments for trust funds. We certainly do not believe the notes in question would be approved by the court for such a purpose. We have always considered that the character of the business of the issuing corporation in this instance was such as to surround it with a great many elements of speculative risk. In the last analysis, it is a business that partakes of the nature of publishing, and we do not know of any publishing business that could offer a security of genuine investment standing unless it were a mortgage on its real estate conservatively appraised and with small account taken of the other tangible assets usually found in connection with such a business—assets which experience has shown to possess relatively little salvage value in cases of difficulty.

In a general way we think that a good plan to follow in making such an investment as this would be to confine the selection of securities to those which are legal for the investment of savings bank funds in your State (Michigan). The Michigan laws prescribing such investments are good laws even if they are somewhat less rigid than the laws of a number of the Eastern States. You would find a good many investments that are "legal" in Michigan affording an income yield of more than 5 per cent., or quite as much as any one responsible for the safekeeping of trust funds probably has a right to accept.

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

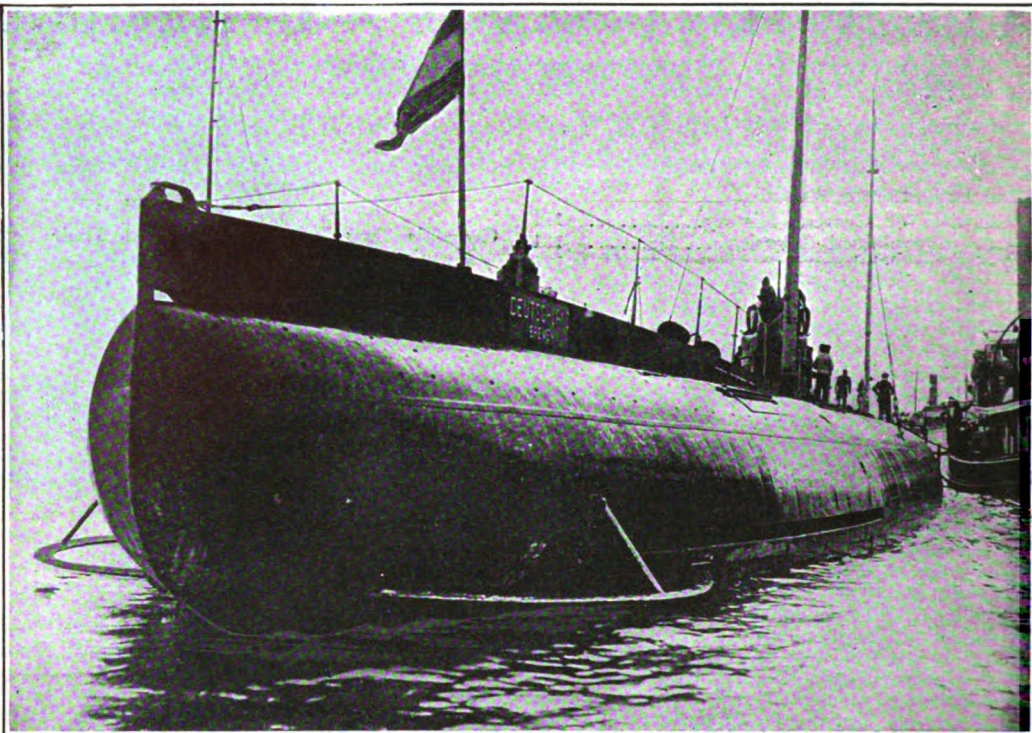
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Photograph by American Press Association

THE GERMAN MERCHANT SUBMARINE "DEUTSCHLAND" AT BALTIMORE



Photo. by Am. Press Ass'n
CAPTAIN PAUL KOENIG
OF THE "DEUTSCHLAND."

HAILED as a wonderboat, and the realization of Jules Verne's imaginative "Nautilus," the giant German submarine "Deutschland" slipped into Baltimore harbor on July 9, after an adventurous voyage of four thousand miles across the Atlantic. Reports of her coming had preceded her, although skepticism was not lacking as to whether the feat would actually be accomplished. The "Deutschland" cleared from Bremerhaven on June 18, and remained at Heligoland for four days training her crew, before starting for America. The trip across took sixteen days, during which the daring craft played hide and seek with many enemy vessels, submerging rapidly when any came into view, and coming to the surface again when the horizon was clear. Her total run submerged was not over ninety miles. In the English Channel she lay for fully ten hours contentedly on the bottom. By means of microphone instruments the whistle of a buoy or the churn of a ship's screws could be heard six miles off, while a good supply of food, a well-stocked library of choice literature, and lively graphophone music made things comfortable and entertaining for her crew of twenty-six men and three officers.

The "Deutschland" is 315 feet long, with a gross tonnage of 791, and has more than a thousand tons cargo capacity. She brought over 750 tons of dyestuffs, valued at about \$1,000,000, and a few sacks of official German government mail. With a cargo of nickel and rubber, she was to start on her return voyage toward the latter part of last month, and much speculation prevailed as to the prospect of her safe arrival on the other side. The "Deutschland" is the enterprise of a private company in Germany, which declares her to be the precursor of other vessels for the establishment of a regular transatlantic merchant service by submarine, thus defying the Allies' blockade. The next under-water liner due on this side, it was said, would be the "Bremen."

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No. 2

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

Chapters of Current History

At the moment when our comments were written for the July number of the REVIEW the entire National Guard of the country was trying to obey the mobilization order of June 19, and we were generally supposed to be entering upon a great war for the conquest and control of Mexico—whether temporary or permanent. Several months before that, we had sent an expedition of the regular army, under General Pershing, about 15,000 strong, straight southward into Mexico to a point about 400 miles from our boundary. The Pershing expedition was regarded by all of Europe, all of South America, all of Mexico, and most of the people of the United States, as an invasion that would bring on some sort of a war and would result in the occupation of Mexico and its control by the United States. We had gone into Mexico on this adventure of last March after the provocation given by a bandit group under Villa's direction or command, who crossed the boundary, and made an attack upon the village of Columbus in the State of New Mexico. Our troops had immediately crossed the border in pursuit of this band, killing about a hundred of the Mexican marauders. It was a number of days later before the Pershing expedition was sufficiently prepared to enter upon its deliberate southward march.

Our Unexplained Invasion

The ostensible purpose of this expedition was to chase groups of Villa's bandits, and thus to help Carranza (whom we had previously acknowledged as head of the *de facto* government) to pacify northern Mexico. The impression was created that we were making our military invasion upon a full understanding with Carranza and in a spirit of harmonious coöperation. But that did not turn out to be just the situation. This American invasion was even more distasteful to the people of Mexico than had been

our attack upon Vera Cruz and our seizure of that port in April, 1914. Certainly there was nothing very convincing about our campaign for clearing northern Mexico of bandits, and producing a condition of civil order. From the first, our troops found themselves in a rather rigid line, on the defensive, in a hostile country. Pershing was not in the least fearing the Villista bandits, but was constantly guarding his army against attacks by great bodies of Carranza's soldiers. The authorities at Washington adhered stoutly to the theory that we were in Mexico to protect our border in some way against bandits. But no one attempted to show just how our practical steps were related to our professed objects.

Irritating Diplomacy

Finally, at the end of May came the very unpalatable "note" from the Carranza government to our government at Washington, protesting against our invasion, demanding the withdrawal of our troops, and explaining that instead of our helping to pacify Mexico we were behaving in a way that aggravated every difficulty and that caused Mexico to doubt the good faith of Uncle Sam. This was not an agreeable note. It was uncandid, like a contentious legal brief. It would have come with better grace from a ruler who had shown ability to maintain order. But it must be remembered that after several years of chaotic civil war, the establishment of normal conditions in a country like Mexico could not be expected from any one as an over-night task. Our job was to guard our own border with efficiency. There had been several years during which we had learned the need of a thorough-going border patrol, but we had neglected it. We had put Pershing and his men in a very dangerous position, with no explanation of a convincing kind. We may as well be frank and admit that the whole world regarded the Pershing expedi-

tion as intended to do something much more important—as respects the solution of the Mexican problem—than to run down a few bands of drifting and half-starving looters and raiders who were for the moment outlawed by the Carranza government. It was the Carranza argument that the time had come for a frank avowal of our purpose, whether to withdraw or to remain.

A Threatened War—About What?

And, of course, since Carranza had been recognized as representing the sovereignty of Mexico, it is not conceivable that he could have done anything else except to request our prompt withdrawal. Yet Carranza's diplomatic notes were fussy, pompous, and irritating; while our own attitude was open to the criticism, from the Mexican standpoint, that it seemed utterly evasive and mysterious. The two countries seemed to be in danger of a bloody and useless war, in consequence of a lack of frankness on both sides. It was all highly puzzling. The only influences that favored the Pershing expedition were those that the Wilson administration had so constantly criticized and assailed—namely, the influences that are guided and controlled by those who have mines and investments in Mexico, or other especial reasons for hoping to see stability brought about by the intervention of Uncle Sam. The Pershing expedition, like the Vera Cruz adventure, was in violent contradiction of the Mexican policy of this Administration.

"The Guard" Ordered to Mexico

After the first of June, friction had constantly increased. General Trevino, commanding the Carranza forces in the north, informed General Pershing that his men must not be moved further south, nor yet to the east or west, but only along their homeward track. This naturally offended the American commander, who replied—as might have been expected—that he was acting under orders from his own superiors. It was on June 19 that President Wilson issued the order calling out the militia of every State in the Union for Mexican border duty. Nothing that had then appeared in the news of the day, nor anything that has since been made known, furnished what would seem to be a full reason for so unexpected and precipitate a call. Everybody in the world, including the citizens of the United States, took it to mean nothing else than a decision at Washington that we would have to invade Mexico and "straighten out" the affairs of that chaotic country. The National Guard proved to be a creaky and unfit piece of military machinery, but it was made up of excellent human material, and it was inspired throughout by willingness and desire to render public service. We have no criticism to make of the men themselves, although we have always frankly expressed our disapproval of the National Guard system. This discussion, however, is dealing rather with the Mexican problem than with the organization of American troops.



HOW CARRANZA WAS IMPRESSING THE PEONS
From the *News* (Dallas, Texas)

A Worthy Correction

The one great outstanding fact is that while the country was resounding with the movement of State forces—because of local interest in the home troops of every community—the Pershing expedition was being rapidly, though silently, withdrawn from Mexico. We were removing the cause of all the trouble! Within a month after the order calling out the National Guard, the movement of withdrawal from Mexico had been so definitely set on foot, and had proceeded so far, that the Mexicans had ceased to complain, because they had gained their point. Officials at Washington allowed the newspapers to say that the objects of the Pershing expedition having been accomplished, our troops would probably be all on the northern side of the boundary line by the middle of August or thereabouts. We were told that General Trevino and his troops were cooperating admirably in helping to pacify the country, and that everything was delightful



Photograph by Harris & Ewing

MR. BAKER, THE SECRETARY OF WAR, RETURNING FROM A WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCE ON THE MEXICAN MILITARY SITUATION AND SURROUNDED BY WASHINGTON CORRESPONDENTS

(Mr. Baker is the central figure. The newspaper men are intelligent, experienced, and fully trusted by high officials. They are recognized at Washington as a part of the government of a country which is supposed to be ruled by public opinion)

—the crisis fully passed, all phases of the Mexican problem in the course of happy adjustment! Never in all human history, probably, has the making and unmaking of foreign crises proceeded with such facility as during recent times at Washington. Certainly the disorder in northern Mexico has given good reason for our prohibiting the export of arms and ammunition to that country, and for our careful and efficient patrol of the boundary line. But nothing has happened that should have led us into war with Mexico. It is therefore highly gratifying to know that we are correcting the grave blunder of the Pershing expedition, and that there is a reasonably good chance of our bringing these men back to our own soil without our having to pay for the mistake by being embroiled in a war so needless that by comparison it would make even the Mexican war of seventy years ago seem heroic and justifiable.

*Grateful
for
Escape*

It is also obvious that if the regiments under General Pershing's command had been maintained as a part of the border patrol there

would have been no possible reason for calling out the National Guard. The country, however, will be profoundly grateful for our miraculous escape from a war which the world at large thought we were forcing upon Mexico. Thus the Administration will almost certainly have the rewards that peace-loving Americans are glad to bestow upon those who are skilful in bringing the country safely out of critical situations. For—in view of the unspeakable horrors of needless war—when any country is brought out of such situations in safety, few be those ill-tempered citizens who have the bad grace and the temerity to continue in a disagreeable tone to demand the reasons why they were ever thrust into hazardous predicaments. There is, indeed, a prevailing opinion that a show of threatening force is sometimes needed in order that people may duly react from alarms of war to common-sense moods of inquiry and negotiation. While it is our opinion that there has existed no reason for the clatter of arms (excepting for a thorough and vigilant policing of the border by our regular army), we have great pleasure in congratulating the Administration upon its

later response to sound reason. Withdrawing the Pershing column was preliminary to any kind of decent negotiation. The admirable tone that marked official utterances both in Mexico and at Washington, after the middle of July, was due to the definite knowledge that we were recalling the expeditionary troops; and it was either tacitly or otherwise agreed that the Pershing invasion should not be a subject of future negotiation or diplomatic discussion.

*The
Carrizal
Occurrence*

It should be remembered that the conduct of our troops in Mexico for the most part was above criticism. The unfortunate occurrence at Carrizal, on June 21 (two days after President Wilson had called out the National Guard), involves questions of fact upon which we are not prepared to express an opinion. About eighty colored troopers from the Tenth Cavalry had been sent a long distance away from the main line of the American army, on some such ostensible errand as the pursuit of a deserter. The situation being as it was, it might well seem that this venture was highly imprudent. At or near the town of Carrizal, our men seem to have chosen to go through the town rather than around it, and the result was a clash which resulted in the death of Captain Boyd,

who commanded the detachment, and some twenty of his men, twenty-two others being taken prisoners by the Mexicans. According to Mexican accounts, our troops made the attack; according to reports of our own men, the Mexicans set a trap and opened fire. Meanwhile all other phases of the Mexican problem seemed for the moment to have been forgotten at Washington in the demand for the release of the twenty-two men who had been captured. There was of course no reason for holding them, and they were brought up to El Paso within a few days and sent across the line. This incident might have led us into a war that would have sacrificed thousands of lives on both sides. Those who were determined that we should stay in Mexico seemed not very sorry over this Carrizal incident. Those who felt otherwise saw in it an illustration of the painful risk we were running in holding the Pershing troops idle in the heart of a foreign state, against the protests of the government and people of that country.

*Good Sense and
Diplomatic
Manners*

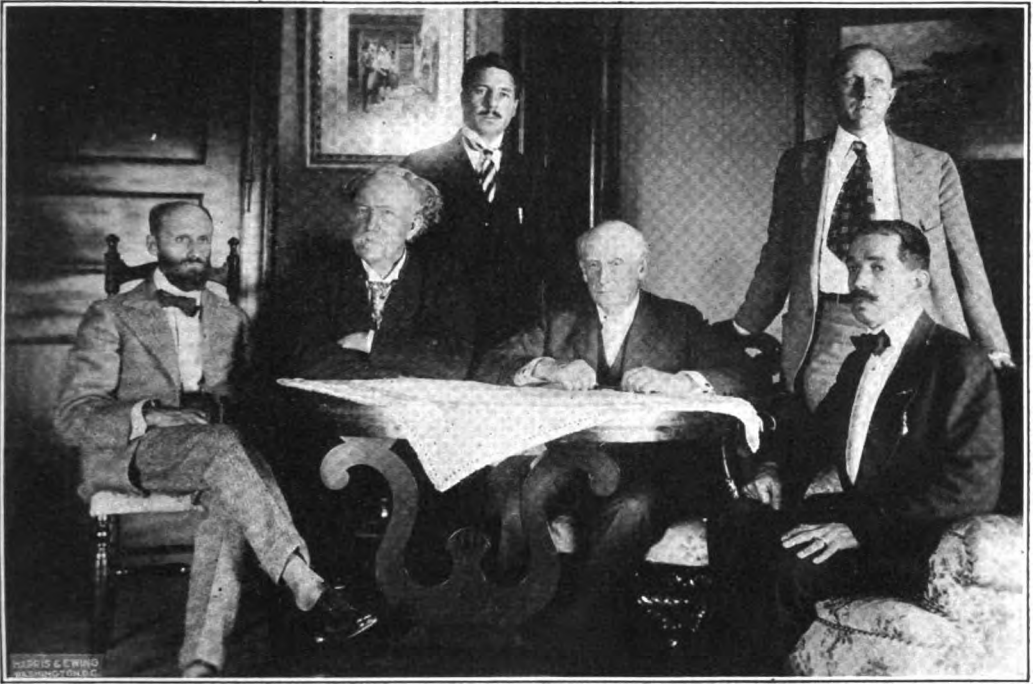
Our recovery of a reasonable state of mind, and the decision of political Washington to accept the military view of the matter, has entirely relieved us of all immediate danger of a war with Mexico. The Mexicans have no



Photograph by Press Illustrating Service

MEXICAN SOLDIERS RELEASING AMERICAN PRISONERS OF WAR ON THE BRIDGE AT EL PASO

(The colored troopers of the Tenth Cavalry who were taken prisoners at Carrizal are seen in the middle line, soldiers of Carranza's army guarding them on both sides)



AN UNOFFICIAL MEXICO-AMERICAN CONFERENCE TO PROMOTE PEACE AND GOOD UNDERSTANDING

(In the last days of June and early days of July, when war seemed the definite Washington program, there was an overwhelming American sentiment for peace that tried to express itself in different ways. One effort took the form of a conference called by the American Union Against Militarism. The picture above shows three Americans and three Mexicans. Seated, from left to right, are: Dr. Atl, editor of a newspaper in the Mexican capital; Dr. David Starr Jordan, scientist, educator, and peace advocate; Mr. Moorfield Storey, the Boston lawyer and reformer; and Mr. Luis Manuel Rojas, director of the Mexican National Library. Standing, are: Mr. Modesto C. Rolland, well known as a Mexican engineer and consul, and Mr. Paul U. Kellogg, editor of the *Survey*.)

means with which to fight the United States, and would only make war as a result of such an invasion as would provoke any people on earth to bitter resistance. They are willing to have us take a few weeks in order not to seem to be withdrawing in response to their demands. It is of course the demand of American public opinion, which happens to accord with the demand of Mexico, that has brought about the desired correction of a great mistake. The army itself is gallant and is obedient. But it is impossible to think of the Pershing expedition as having a military character. It is understood that the General Staff at Washington and General Pershing himself were recommending withdrawal in the strongest terms. The troops had been put in a position which had no strategic value, and the only reason for keeping them there, apparently, lay in the fact that Mexico was offensive in her manner of asking us to take them away. During the absence from Washington last month of Secretary Lansing, Mr. Frank L. Polk, Counselor of the State Department, was Acting Secretary. Mr. Arredondo, as Ambassador Designate of the Mexican government, was

in conference with Mr. Polk over the details of a plan for a joint commission, to be composed equally of Mexicans and Americans, to deal with existing problems, chief of which is a plan for the more effective protection of the frontier. The discussion was practical and harmonious.

Things for Inquiry

One of the topics that this commission will deal with is the cause of the raids that compel us thus to patrol our border so vigilantly. In Mexico it is charged that these raids are all organized within the United States, with a view to keeping up a state of affairs on the frontier that will lead to intervention. The plan of a joint commission was proposed by General Carranza, and it was announced on July 14th that President Wilson had accepted this idea. It will be necessary, of course, to proceed with care in order to work out the details of the scope and method of such a joint commission. In the middle of July, General Carranza announced that negotiations were proceeding in a spirit of good will and that there was no danger of war. Carranza was optimistic enough to



Photograph by Press Illustrating Service, New York

**HON. FRANK L. POLK, COUNSELOR OF THE STATE
DEPARTMENT**

(Mr. Polk, after a short experience, has shown himself a competent and valuable member of the Administration. During Mr. Lansing's absence he has been Acting Secretary of State and negotiator of a pending project for settling differences with Mexico)

declare that the reforms which the Constitutionalists had demanded will soon be incorporated in the Mexican constitution. He promised a presidential election when the country was completely at peace; and declared that there will be amnesty for all Mexicans who have left the country whenever the Government finds itself on a firm basis. But stability is not yet in sight.

Enough confidence was shown at Washington to justify an order, about the middle of July, permitting the movement of commodities into Mexico excepting war munitions. The Mexican people have lately suffered a good deal from the stoppage of shipments of ordinary supplies of food, clothing, and other necessities. General Pershing found a complete change of attitude all along the line, when he began the withdrawal, and an

*Lights
and
Shades*

eagerness for the resumption of normal and friendly relations between the two countries. One of the disturbing features of the situation was the report that a large quantity of ammunition that had been shipped to Texas, under pretense of supplying the ordinary local trade, had been delivered to Villa sympathizers and smuggled in wagons across the border to Villa's headquarters on the Rio Florida, southwest of Chihuahua City. There were rumors of renewed and enlarged activity on the part of Villa and his followers. The chieftain himself was reported as sufficiently recovered from his wounds to be in the field again. On July 12th a bill was introduced in the House at Washington, by Congressman Randall, of California, to appropriate \$2,000,000 for the relief of destitute Mexicans who need food and clothing,



Photograph by Harris & Ewing, Washington

SEÑOR ELISEO ARREDONDO, MEXICAN REPRESENTATIVE AT WASHINGTON

(Mr. Arredondo, as Ambassador Designate, has been working with energy and good will at the State Department to bring about a plan for safeguarding the border and insuring peace between the United States and Mexico)

to be expended by the War Department. There is nothing but kindly feeling in the United States towards the unfortunate and suffering women and children of Mexico, as well as towards great numbers of peons and ordinary workmen who are the victims of conditions for which they are not responsible. When Mexico can find a way to seek our friendship and help, and when we on our side can find the best way to be of use to Mexico, it will be fortunate indeed for everybody concerned.



Photograph by Harris & Ewing, Washington

AT THE NATIONAL GUARD CAMP, FORT MYER, VA.

(Secretary Baker, on the right, and General Scott, Chief of Staff, on the left, are calling upon Gen. William E. Harvey, head of the District of Columbia National Guard in camp at Fort Myer, in the suburbs of Washington)

Defense Lessons to Be Learned It is to be hoped that we may learn the practical lessons of a military kind that our movement of the regular army in March, and our experience with the National Guard system in June and July, can afford us if we know how to acquire benefit from experience. The dominating lesson to be learned is the futility of our expensive and inefficient scheme of national defense. The officers of our regular army are well trained and afford us an excellent nucleus. But our method of enlisting men in the regular army is obsolete and worthless. As for the National Guard, it is made up of much splendid material, wholly ill-assorted, fit enough to serve the country in a small way for purposes of home defense, but wholly unfit to be transferred on momentary notice to the national service and shipped several thousand miles to meet a foreign emergency. We have now perhaps ninety thousand National Guardsmen in Texas and elsewhere along the frontier. Most of these are from New York and the East. Many of them are married men with families dependent upon their weekly wages or monthly salaries. It is grotesquely unfitting that they should be kept in camps for months not even doing patrol duty, when there are thousands of acclimated Southwesterners who can ride and shoot, and who should be made part of a temporary force that would take excellent care of frontier conditions.

A Haphazard Episode

For many of the Guardsmen—particularly the young, unmarried men—this precipitate and seemingly needless call to the Mexican border will have proved an interesting and perhaps a valuable experience. But the whole episode is haphazard in the extreme, and illus-

trates the simple fact that our rulers and lawmakers at Washington have not found out what is requisite for national defense. It will be necessary to build up, as Secretary Garrison so clearly foresaw, a federal army reserve expressly designed to meet exigencies. We have plenty of partially trained young men willing to go into the regular army for a period of one year, if they may then be retired to a reserve. The present system is undemocratic, chaotic, obsolete. A system of universal training is the only one that is just and reasonable. Very brief and intensive service in the army; no reenlistments permitted; the rapid building-up of a great reserve force. These are some of the cardinal principles of the only plan that deserves to be considered. Our failure to have a good system is partly a reflection upon our national intelligence, but chiefly a reflection upon our national character. We squander public money enough to train every boy in the United States to be a good citizen and one capable of defending his country. But blockheads, local politicians, and selfish lobbyists have great sway in this country of party machines and self-seeking tendencies. For that reason, thousands of men are to-day in State camps, who should be at home.



A NAVAL CONSULTING BOARD POSTER FOR INDUSTRIAL PREPAREDNESS
(This reduced illustration is from one of a series of large colored posters)

*Training
Our
Citizens*

On the other hand, it is cheering to find so many young men in camps, under the guidance and instruction of officers who preach the ideals of peace, but who demand of every citizen a willingness to take hard military training for the sake of being fit to do his duty in time of need. Henceforth, no young man should be permitted to exercise the rights and privileges of a voting citizen unless he can show affirmatively (1) that he has a good character and reputation, (2) that he is able to earn a living by doing some kind of useful work, and (3) that he has been trained in the duties of citizenship, including a knowledge of his ordinary civic obligations and a duly certified fitness to render appropriate service in case the community or the country needs him in time of war or other public emergency.

*Industrial
Preparedness*

The European conflict has demonstrated conclusively the absolute dependence of the military on the industrial factors of a nation in modern warfare. With the air now full of complaint in the United States about the unpreparedness of our militia forces, it is gratifying to note the progress so far achieved in the making of an inventory of the nation's industrial resources. This work is being done by the Committee on Industrial Preparedness of the Naval Consulting Board, of which Mr. Howard E. Coffin is chairman. A field force of 30,000 engineers, with State and local divisions, is engaged in the task. More than 100,000 manufacturing plants in all parts of the country have already

been registered for possible war service. Comprehensive information was sought from the owners of factories, mills, and mines as to the feasibility of adjusting their plants to the production of war materials. The data has been forthcoming in a spirit of hearty coöperation. The supreme importance of thus marshaling the country's manufacturing facilities is shown by the fact that probably 80 per cent. of our industrial plants would be concerned in producing war goods of some kind in time of hostilities.

*A Council
of Executive
Information*

This makes it all the more necessary that the skilled workers in mills, mines, and factories, in transportation and communication systems, and in governmental departments, should not in time of hostilities be called from their work to fight, but should be kept at their industrial posts of duty. They should be enrolled for their own forms of public service. The information gathered by the committee is being kept strictly confidential for the use of the War and Navy Departments. The government will thus know how to get into immediate touch with the proper plants for the production of needed war supplies. The manufacturers, on the other hand, by learning in advance what they can produce for war purposes, will be able to keep their plants going with war work. The committee's plan contemplates the giving out of small "educational" orders to these factories in time of peace. This will accustom them to the production and shipment of some particular necessary commodity. Aside from the vital benefit to be derived from proper

preparedness, the distribution of war orders among the producers of the entire country will not only prevent the dangerous concentration of the work in factories on unprotected seaboard, but should do much to allay fears as to a "munitions trust." It is gratifying to note that Congress is recognizing the great importance of this work of Mr. Coffin's committee, and is creating a Council of Executive Information to carry it on permanently. This Council, with an advisory commission, will be composed of men of eminent ability in various fields of industry. The great staff of workers who have gathered the mass of information for the committee's industrial inventory may also, it is hoped, be permanently organized for future coöperation.

*Congress on
the Home
Stretch*

Members of the law-making bodies at Washington are not to be blamed for desiring to complete the work of the session and return to their homes. During the months of July, August, and September, Washington is a hot place, and the Congressmen become fagged. Last summer there was a welcome respite. The Sixty-third Congress had expired on March 4, and the newly elected Sixty-fourth was not called into special session. Consequently the halls of the Capitol were closed from March 4, 1915, to December 6, when the present session began. The three preceding Congresses had all been called into special sessions. Thus in 1909 the Payne-Aldrich Tariff was passed in the first months of Mr. Taft's administration, and Congress adjourned on August 5. In 1911, Mr. Taft called the new Democratic Congress to deal with the Canadian reciprocity measure, and he found that he had invoked a series of so-called "pop gun" tariff bills, Congress remaining in session until August 22. In the following year, 1912, the regular "long session" continued until August 26. That was the season of the campaign; and Mr. Wilson's inauguration on the 4th of March, 1913, was followed by the prompt assembling of the new Congress, which passed the Underwood Tariff measure and other notable legislation. This session persisted through the summer and fall, making merely technical adjournment when the first regular session began on December 1. Congress continued to sit through the winter, spring, summer, and fall, until October 24, reassembling on the first Monday in December and continuing active until its legal expiration on March 4. Thus the

Sixty-third Congress was in practically continuous session from April, 1913, to March, 1915. The present Congress was not called in extra session, and thus there was a respite from the 4th of March last year until December 6, when the present session began.

*Making
the Record
"Ad Lib."*

There has been a practical agreement among the leaders of both sides to reach adjournment on or about Saturday, the 19th of August. President Wilson, meanwhile, as we remarked last month, is in a position to shape events that may have an important bearing upon the elections in November. No President, all things considered, has ever been more effective than Mr. Wilson in securing the consent of Congress to such measures as he has deemed right. As the work of his first two years recedes into perspective, it reveals immense achievements through sheer concentrated purpose and masterfulness. There is plenty of room for criticism, and the Republicans will have ample fighting ground. But the Democrats and Wilson supporters on their part have the decided advantage in going before the country on the record of their legislative achievements. The country in 1908 gave the Republicans a mandate to reform the tariff. The result was a shocking failure. The Democrats in their turn received a like mandate in 1912, and the result is at least regarded as better from the standpoint of the average citizen. The Republicans talked much about reforming the banking and currency system, and had every opportunity, but left the work undone. The Democrats accomplished the thing forthwith. The Federal Trade Commission, to deal with industrial monopoly and like problems, has not been fully tested, but it promises to be a useful agency; and it would seem only fair to say that the Democratic record in dealing with so-called "big business" is less capricious and arbitrary than was that of the immediately previous Republican régime.

*Bidding
Brilliantly for
Progressives*

Normal issues have been greatly confused by the extraordinary foreign situations of the past two years. Domestic programs have been to some extent forgotten in the face of hazardous diplomacy and agitation over military and naval preparedness. Yet the treatment of domestic issues will have an important bearing upon the votes of large groups and classes of men in November. This being clearly perceived, and Congress with good

working Democratic majorities being still in session, President Wilson naturally desires to make the record of the current year an impressive one. Accordingly, he made one of his informal visits to the President's room in the Senate wing of the Capitol on July 18, and expressed his desires in clear terms to the leaders. The other House had just passed a workmen's compensation bill to be applied to federal employees, and had previously passed, by a large majority, a child labor bill modeled on the lines and principles of the famous old Beveridge bill. Mr. Wilson demanded that the Senate include both of these measures in its immediate program. This is politics in a high and a brilliant sense of the word. It was announced everywhere as Mr. Wilson's bid for the Progressive vote, but nobody can justly criticize that method of seeking support.

*Abolishing
Child
Labor*

When Mr. Beveridge and other Progressive leaders were fighting for their child labor bill, they were as voices crying in the wilderness. Their principal opposition came from Southern Senators, and from New England capitalists who controlled Southern cotton mills which employed child labor. Certain of these Southern Senators, previous to Mr. Wilson's visit of July 18, had determined to prevent—by filibustering if necessary—the passage of the bill this year. It seems wholly probable that they will have to give in, and that this great charter of life, liberty, and freedom for American children will become a reality. The bill excludes from interstate commerce all products originating in factories employing children under the age of fourteen. Since this REVIEW has favored that kind of national child labor legislation for some ten years, it is hardly to be expected that we should withhold praise from Mr. Wilson for using his official and political influence to make the reform a reality. This was one of the cardinal demands of the national Progressive movement of 1912, as reiterated in the terse Chicago platform of the Progressives as adopted this year. That platform demands, among many other things, the following reforms:

We must remove the artificial cause of the high cost of living, prevent the exploitation of men, women, and children in industry by the extension of the workmen's compensation law to the full limit permitted under the Constitution, and by a thorough-going child-labor law protect the wage-earner, and by a properly regulated sys-

tem of rural credits encourage the farmer and give to the landless man opportunity to acquire land.

*Capitalizing
the
Farmer*

On July 17, the day before his visit to the Senate, President Wilson had affixed his signature to the completed Rural Credits bill. Thus one of the greatest of the Progressive measures has become a realized fact, although it is yet to be seen just how the machinery of the plan for improving agriculture as a business will work out. We have published, from the pen of an expert, Mr. Paul V. Collins, two articles (see our numbers for the months of April and May) explaining the essentials of this Rural Credits measure. It creates a series of twelve land-loan banks under the direction of a central Federal board, which will lend money at a reasonable standard rate for farm development, on a plan of gradual repayment through a long term of years. It would seem to us a good way to bring capital and agriculture into unison for the most important of all possible industrial objects—namely, the thorough-going development of American farming. Quite contrary to prevailing impressions, we have not been making nearly as much farm progress in this country as they have been making in Europe during the last twenty-five years. With the Child Labor bill and the Workmen's Compensation bill completed and put on the statute books in the present month, this Administration will be able to



THE PILOT—TRIED AND FOUND TRUSTWORTHY
From the *World-Herald* (Omaha)



Photograph by Harris & Ewing, Washington

**AT THE DEDICATION OF THE NEW HOME OF THE AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR IN WASHINGTON
LAST MONTH**

(President Wilson and the Secretary of Labor, Mr. Wilson, joined in celebrating the completion of the seven-story building which is to be the "home" of organized labor. The picture shows them reviewing an impressive labor parade, with Samuel Gompers, president of the American Federation of Labor, who stands in the center)

make a strong appeal, when its campaign opens in September, for the votes of the social-reform elements of the Progressive party, for the farmer vote, and for the vote of the wage-earning classes, whether organized or unorganized.

***Creating
the Great
Navy***

The House of Representatives had already completed its legislative program, except as it had to deal with the compromises to be worked out in a series of conference committees after the Senate had given its amended form to pending measures. Thus in the middle of July the Senate had altered the House Naval bill by an enormous increase in the number of new ships to be built and in the total outlay. As finally settled in the Senate on July 18, with the approval of the President and Secretary of the Navy and the support of leading Senators of both parties, the measure calls for a total of 157 new vessels of all classes within the next three years. The House had ordered five battle cruisers for the coming year; but the Senate bill calls for eight big ships, four of them to be battle cruisers and four dreadnaughts. The three-year program includes sixteen large ships. Besides numerous scout cruisers and torpedo-

boat destroyers, the bill provides for thirty coast submarines to be built in 1917 and a total of fifty-eight in the three-year program, with a further series of nine fleet submarines. Thus the Senators have adopted the Republican idea of a strong American navy, under the President's lead, with the hearty approval of the best-informed opinion of the country. The House of Representatives should accept the program of the President and the Senate, which is intended to give us the second navy of the world at the earliest possible moment.

***The New
Revenue
Bill***

On July 10 the House of Representatives passed the Emergency Revenue bill providing funds for the extraordinary expenses of the Administration's preparedness program. Thirty-nine Republicans and one Independent voted with the Democrats in favor of the measure. The Administration found estimates for the new fiscal year indicating that expenditures would exceed receipts by no less than \$266,000,000. This threatened deficiency did not take in consideration the extraordinary expenses of the troop movements to the Mexican border. As to these defense items, it is reported that the Government will take care of them

through an issue of bonds to an amount of \$125,000,000. To make up the deficiency caused by the preparedness program, the Government now expects to take about \$70,000,000 from the Treasury, which is in most prosperous condition; raise \$107,000,000 through increased income taxes; \$17,000,000 through a tax on inheritances; \$71,000,000 from taxes of 5 to 8 per cent. on the gross receipts of munition companies, including producers of copper, and \$2,000,000 from miscellaneous imposts. The total Government expenditures provided for will approximate \$1,579,000,000.

*The Income
Tax Nearly
Doubled*

The new measure retains the exemption of \$3000 incomes for unmarried citizens and \$4000 for the married. The basic tax for incomes above these sums—known as the normal tax—is to be twice that provided for by the Underwood bill, or 2 per cent. up to \$20,000. The proposed surtax is 1 per cent. on incomes between \$20,000 and \$40,000, with increases for each \$20,000 of additional income up to \$100,000; 5 per cent. on incomes between \$100,000 and \$150,000, with increases by \$50,000 steps up to 8 per cent.; 9 per cent. on incomes between \$300,000 and \$500,000, and 10 per cent. on all over \$500,000.

*How Many
People Pay
the Tax*

In the debate of this Emergency Revenue measure, Representative Hull, author of the income tax and inheritance tax sections of the bill, discussed the distribution of income tax payers. He denied that only one-half of one per cent. of the population of the United States paid any income tax, although he admitted that only 400,000 persons make individual returns. His contention was that practically one-half of the tax is paid by the 190,000 corporations of the United States, and that, therefore, their 2,500,000 stockholders should be added to the 400,000 people who make individual returns. It is perfectly obvious, however, that the 400,000 group is largely contained in the list of stockholders and it is also true, though not so obvious, that the 2,500,000 stockholders are not so many different people, but that this figure is arrived at by adding together lists of stockholders which show the same individual names repeated over and over again.

*High
Protection
Features*

Included in the new bill is an anti-dumping clause designed to protect the American market against a flood of European goods made with

cheap labor after the war. This clause prohibits selling articles from foreign countries at prices less than the market value in the world's markets, after adding freight duty and other charges. The bill reclassifies the duties on dye stuffs in an attempt to help American manufacturers become independent of Germany. Raw dye products are to be admitted free, with rates running as high as 30 per cent. ad valorem on finished dyes, and a special protective duty of 5 cents a pound. A tariff commission is provided for, the commissioners to receive \$7500 a year and the body to go to Congress annually for an appropriation, \$300,000 being provided for the next fiscal year.

*Saving Money
for the
Government*

Inefficiency and waste in government are so common that instances of them no longer excite even a mild protest. We often overlook examples of administrative thrift and the guarding of the public interests where laxity might have been unnoticed. A case in point is the work of the unpaid Federal Commission appointed several years ago under the Weeks Act with the right to expend \$1,000,000 the first year and \$2,000,000 a year for



U. S.: "I DON'T MIND PUMPING—BUT ARE YOU SURE YOUR BUCKET DOESN'T LEAK!"
From the *Times* (New York)

five subsequent years, in the purchase of forest lands in the White Mountains and the Southern Appalachians, to save the forests from destruction. Large tracts have been purchased for the Government at a total administrative cost of less than 50 cents an acre and there is still \$3,000,000 unexpended. Secretaries Lane and Houston, and former Secretary Garrison, who have served on the commission, are deserving of especial credit for their support of this non-partisan and non-sectional enterprise, as well as for raising standards of economy and foresight in public service.

**Congress
and
"Pork"**

The "pork-barrel" appropriations by Congress form a less pleasing picture. Bills introduced during the present session provide for more than 700 public buildings, involving an expenditure of \$100,000,000. Bills now on the calendar would appropriate from \$25,000 to \$150,000 each for buildings in towns of less than 1,000 population. Some appropriations just as uncalled for have actually been made. The log-rolling methods of Congress are responsible for this, quite as much as the greediness of the towns benefited. There is at least one recent instance of a community rising above petty local interests and telling its representatives in Congress that a better use could be made of public money than in building it a post-office. The Mayor and Common Council, with nearly 500 citizens, of Ripon, Wisconsin, have petitioned Washington to have the \$75,000 appropriated for their post-office building diverted to purposes of national defense, preferably aviation equipment. This is not only a patriotic act; it is good common-sense. Many other towns might well follow the example.

**The
Political
Campaign**

There is not much to be said about a political campaign that has not yet begun except in a preliminary way. The elections in November will be decided by the independent vote of the country; and the Progressives of four years ago have now become to a great extent independents. Both candidates will have good grounds for appealing for Progressive and independent support. Neither Wilson nor Hughes is a narrow partisan. Both are of the intellectual and reforming type. The Wilson administration is not distinctively partisan. There is no spirit of narrow partisanship in the departmental work, and the Cabinet officers have been carrying



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A NEW SNAPSHOT PHOTOGRAPH OF MR. HUGHES,
TAKEN IN NEW YORK LAST MONTH

on their respective branches of the public service with as high a degree of devotion to the country and as great freedom from scandals or from hint of impropriety as any previous administration in the history of the country. There is every reason to believe that Governor Hughes, if elected, would maintain the highest administrative standards. The campaign will not be fought in this particular domain. Just how it will be shaped remains to be seen. But it will be concerned with large issues of public policy, and with national leadership in critical times.

**Managers
Chosen**

Mr. Wilson and Mr. Hughes are alike fortunate in their choice of campaign managers. The Democratic chairman is Mr. Vance McCormick, of Pennsylvania, who made a notable success some years ago as mayor of Harrisburg, and who was the unsuccessful Democratic nominee for Governor against Brumbaugh in the election of two years ago. Mr. McCormick typifies what is best in our politics and our public life. A campaign under his direction will have a genuine character and use reputable methods. The chairman of the Hughes campaign committee is Mr. William R. Willcox, of



HON. WILLIAM R. WILLCOX, OF NEW YORK
(The new chairman of the Republican National Committee)



HON. VANCE MCCORMICK, OF PENNSYLVANIA
(The new chairman of the Democratic National Committee)

New York City. Mr. Willcox is a personal friend of the candidate and a citizen of distinction and honorable standing. He has always been ready to render such public service as he was called upon to undertake; and he has made memorable records in three positions: (1) as Park Commissioner in Mayor Low's administration, (2) as Postmaster of New York in President Roosevelt's administration, and (3) as first head of the Public Service Commission regulating the transit facilities of New York City, when that body was created by Governor Hughes. A campaign committee, under Mr. Willcox's chairmanship, has already been named, with half a dozen leading Progressives in its membership of about eighteen. The Progressive National Committee, meeting at Chicago on June 26 and following Colonel Roosevelt's advice, had decided by a large majority to support Hughes and the Republican ticket. A number of leading Progressives, however, have preferred to support Wilson and they will be well represented on the Democratic campaign committee. Mr. Hughes is preparing to deliver a series of speeches in the West during August, following his formal notification on July 31. President Wilson's campaign

will not open until after the adjournment of Congress, and will be based largely upon the legislative and executive record of the Democratic party. It is expected that before the end of the campaign Colonel Roosevelt will take the platform for Hughes and Fairbanks.

*Too Many
Elections*

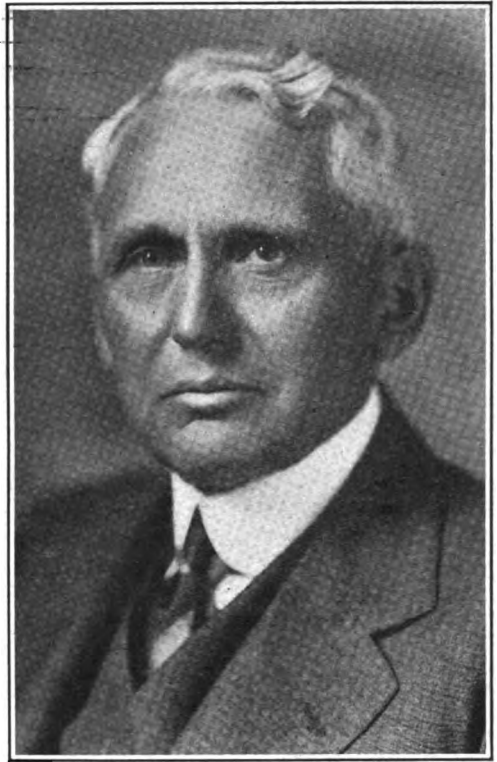
It is, in our opinion, always to be regretted that we cannot hold a national election on its own merits, free from association with State and local politics. Thirty-six States have Governors to elect in November, with Legislatures for a great majority of the States, and with thousands of officers of county, city, and township governments. These State and local elections ought to be held in the spring, or else in the odd years. The November election day of even years should be reserved for choosing members of Congress, members of the United States Senate, and Presidential electors. There will this year be a great effort on the part of the Republicans to carry the Senate and if possible the House. Some thirty-four Senators are to be elected by popular vote. As a result of the primary elections, Hon. Frank B. Kellogg becomes the Minnesota candi-

date, and he will probably succeed Senator Clapp. Mr. Kellogg is a man of exceptional fitness and training for the position of Senator. Mr. Knox is likely to return to the Senate from Pennsylvania. Owing to the death of Senator Shively, there will be two seats involved in the Indiana election. Mr. Harry New and Mr. James Watson are the Republican candidates, and Senators Kern and Thomas Taggart are the Democratic. The California situation becomes interesting because Governor Johnson is in the race for the Republican nomination and Mr. Francis Heney or Secretary Lane is expected to be the Democratic choice.

The Decision Against the Corn Products Company It came as a surprise to financial circles when, in the first week of July, the Federal District Court gave its decision against the Corn Products Company and ordered the concern dissolved. The treatment of the American Can Company last March, when the court refused to order dissolution, had led Wall Street to believe the Corn Products Company would be allowed to live. In the latter case, Judge Hand held that, while it was true the Trust had not stifled competition in the glucose and starch trade, the only reason they had not stifled it was that their attempts were unsuccessful. The Corn Products Company is said to control some 60 per cent. of the glucose trade of the United States, although its directors deny this percentage as accurate. The case is to be appealed.

Railroads Appeal to the Public As was noted in the July issue of this REVIEW, the representatives of the railroad employees asking for higher wages refused last month the offer of the railroad managers to arbitrate the dispute, and proceeded to obtain a vote from some 500,000 railroad employees as to whether their representatives should be empowered to declare a general strike if they should find it necessary. While the balloting on this question is going on, the railroads have undertaken to place their position before the public by placing an advertisement in every daily and weekly newspaper in the United States. This announcement, which was printed in 17,000 different periodicals, takes the ground that the question is really one for the public to decide and that the railroads feel they have "no right to grant a wage preferment of \$100,000,000 a year to these employees, now highly paid and consti-

Aug.—2



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HON. FRANK B. KELLOGG, OF MINNESOTA

(Mr. Kellogg, who will probably be the new Senator from Minnesota, has been president of the American Bar Association and is perhaps the most experienced of American lawyers in the application of the Sherman Anti-Trust Law)

tuting only one-fifth of all the employees, without a clear mandate from a public tribunal that shall determine the merits of the case after a review of all the facts." The railways propose the Interstate Commerce Commission as the public body to decide the matter. The Pennsylvania Railroad individually has printed an appeal to its 225,000 men to use their influence against a vote in favor of striking. Only 18 per cent. of the Pennsylvania employees are called on to vote on the question.

Warden Osborne and Sing Sing Last month Warden Thomas Mott Osborne resumed his duties at Sing Sing Prison, New York, the courts having disposed of the various charges preferred against him before local courts of Westchester County. The welcome accorded Mr. Osborne by Sing Sing's inmates, organized as the Mutual Welfare League, was something unprecedented in the history of prisons. It was announced that a psychopathic clinic would be started at Sing Sing for the scientific study



Photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

HON. THOMAS MOTT OSBORNE (AT THE RIGHT)
AND GEORGE W. KIRCHWEY

(Dr. Kirchwey served as Warden of Sing Sing Prison while Mr. Osborne was fighting in the courts the charges that had been brought against his management of prison affairs)

of individual criminals. All convicts will be examined and those found mentally defective will be separated from those of normal mentality. Each convict's personal history, the details of his home life and early environment, the influences to which he has been exposed in his later career, his conduct in prison, will all be investigated. The funds for this work are contributed by the Rockefeller Foundation. Later, when the new State prison is completed, Sing Sing will be a great receiving station, where all prisoners will undergo a preliminary examination and grouping. Thus the very name of Sing Sing, long the symbol of all that is rotten and decadent in a bygone prison system, may yet be associated with the vital force of the new penology.

Teachers
in
Convention

Fifty thousand teachers gathered in New York City early last month and gave up a week to conferences on matters connected with their calling—chiefly the great problem of relating education to life, training the child and the youth to do useful work in the world. The National Education Association has not often given so much of its time to the country school and rural conditions as it did this year. The address of the president, Dr. David Bancroft Johnson, was a plea for a national commission to study the farm home and the farm woman, with a view to the conservation of health and strength on the farm. The question of national preparedness came before the Association in the form of a debate on military training in the public schools. The convention was conservative in its resolutions on this subject, declaring that "military ends should not be permitted to pervert the educational purposes and practices of the schools." General Wood and Mr. Bryan, with other eminent speakers, addressed the teachers for and against military training. Many men and women who attended the sessions of the association remained in New York for some weeks as members of the Columbia University Summer School, which has a total enrollment of over 8,000 students. Although this is the largest summer school in the country, or in the world, it is by no means the only one that shows a remarkable record of growth during recent years. Throughout the country summer schools are gaining not only in attendance of students, but in quality of equipment and seriousness of purpose as well.

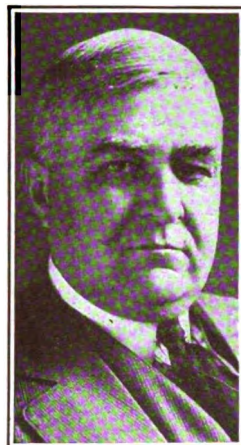


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SING SING INMATES WELCOMING WARDEN OSBORNE UPON HIS
RETURN LAST MONTH

Trouble in the Garment Trades

A lockout involving nearly 60,000 workers in the garment trades of New York City has been in effect since April. During the three months of enforced idleness there has been much suffering on New York's "East Side." Large relief funds have been raised by the workers themselves; the unions have dispensed aid systematically, and generous contributions have been made by those wealthy citizens who always respond in emergencies of this kind. Yet the need has outstripped the provision to meet it. A committee of disinterested men and women who have studied the situation carefully declare that as a result of the lockout "more than 200,000 human beings are facing hunger in New York City to-day." Acting in the interest of the general public, Mayor Mitchel has made repeated efforts to bring about arbitration between the Manufacturers' Protective Association and the employees. The manufacturers demand, and the unions concede, the right to hire and discharge employees. The unions insist, however, on the principle of collective bargaining. In some of the garment trades prices for piece work are now fixed by the application of a system of impartial tests conducted by the manufacturers and the unions conjointly. Either this or some similar method of adjustment might



Photographs copyrighted by Underwood & Underwood, New York

DR. DAVID B. JOHNSON
(North Carolina)

DR. ROBERT J. ALEY
(Maine)

THE RETIRING AND THE NEW PRESIDENT OF THE
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

well be adopted by the cloak and suit makers. At any rate, since the workers have from the outset expressed a willingness to abide by arbitration, the manufacturers should consent to submit all questions in dispute to a board of impartial business men.

Infantile Paralysis

An epidemic of infantile paralysis (known among the doctors as acute anterior poliomyelitis) caused much alarm last month in New York City and at a few other points. Nine years ago over 2500 cases of this disease were reported in New York, but the mortality rate was only 5 per cent. This year the deaths have been more numerous—approaching 20 per cent. Up to July 20, when the crest of the disease wave seemed to have been reached in the city, the number of cases had not equalled that reported in 1907. The measures taken by the city officials to check the present epidemic have been more stringent and thoroughgoing than in former years. Sunday schools, moving-picture theaters, and other gathering-places have been closed to children under sixteen. The Health Department, aided by citizen volunteers, has made careful sanitary inspections of the city. Suburban places have enforced a rigorous quarantine against New York children. Many precautions have been taken against the spread of the disease, and even distant cities have guarded themselves against infection from the metropolis. In the present state of our knowledge of this disease (the germ of which has not yet been isolated), the medical profession can only emphasize



Photograph by Press Illustrating Service, New York

STRIKING CLOAK AND SUIT MAKERS OF NEW YORK CITY, IN LINE TO DRAW FROM THE UNION THEIR ALLOWANCE OF \$3 WEEKLY

the importance of rigid personal hygiene, especially as regards the nose and throat, and the avoidance of contact.

*Better
Crop
Reports*

The Government crop report of July 8 is an important one, because the season has progressed far enough to make the estimates at that date more certain than in earlier months. The midsummer report of 1916 shows a more prosperous condition than was indicated in June. Taking the crops as a whole, they are undoubtedly better than the average for the five years preceding the wonderful yields of 1915. The month of June produced an improvement in the wheat fields, put at 44,000,000 bushels, which would make the combined crop of the winter and spring wheat some 759,000,000 bushels. The final yield of oats was put at 1,317,000,000 bushels, an improvement of about 5 per cent. over the June indications. A larger acreage of corn is planted this year and the July estimates are for a crop of 2,866,000,000 bushels. With favorable conditions this may increase even to exceed last year's unprecedented crop of 3,055,000,000 bushels. Potatoes, while growing on a smaller acreage than last year, promise a slight increase in yield over 1915.

*A Great Hay,
Tobacco, and
Cotton Year*

The grass fields are more important in the farmers' economy than are generally suggested in crop reports; last year the value of the hay crop was no less than \$912,000,000, and in 1916 there is a considerably increased yield of hay and a better demand for it. It may be worth in money more than any of the cereals. A record tobacco crop was reported, and 2,000,000,000 pounds of beet sugar will be produced this season, making the United States the fourth largest beet-sugar producer in the world. This crop has quadrupled since 1900 and is this year worth \$100,000,000. As to cotton, it is difficult to realize that the Southern planters were, little more than a year ago, in the depths of despair, with cotton selling for scarcely more than half the estimated cost of production and with loud calls from all sections of the South to cut the acreage in half. This staple is now bringing its producers between 12 and 13 cents a pound, in spite of a great crop for 1916, estimated at 14,266,000 bales—the third largest in history. Railroads, factories, and industry in general throughout the Southern States are showing the effect of cotton's return to normal prices and demand.

*Terrible
Fighting in
Europe*

The chief developments of last month in the European military situation are set forth with great acumen and power of analysis by Mr. Simonds in his monthly review of the war, which will be found in subsequent pages of this number. The magnitude and the intensity of the struggle this summer quite numb the mental grasp of the ordinary reader. The greatest military experts two years ago, at the beginning of the war, would not have believed it possible that after twenty-four months the conflict could have become so stupendous in its activities. The most striking changes of the past month have been due to the rapid sweep of the Russians against the Austrians, and the powerful initiative of the English against that part of the German line in France that faces the British army as now greatly increased and well trained. The British are using artillery almost, if not quite, as effectively as the French and Germans. Austria seems to be weakening; but the grim and unshaken determination of Germany, now on the defensive against considerable odds, has aroused the reluctant admiration of all her foes. Nations so valiant as those now at war deserve to live in good understanding and mutual confidence. Yet peace does not seem near at hand.

*Turkey
in
Chaos*

It is in Europe that Russia is making most notable advances. Her movements have been arrested in Asia Minor. Yet in due time she seems likely to fight her way to further conquests south and west of the Caucasus. The condition of Asia Minor is so distressing that almost any change would be for the better. Even yet we have not learned the whole truth regarding the extent of the crime against the Armenian race. Turkey has been growing steadily more reckless and irresponsible in her treatment of neutral rights. American colleges, schools, hospitals, and other institutions have been seized in considerable number without plausible pretext, and Americans and other foreigners expelled from the country. The sealed archives of French and other consulates that had been turned over for safe-keeping to American consuls have now been violated, and influential natives of Turkey have been executed on the pretense that these consular papers had implicated them in disloyalty to the Turkish Government. If our Ambassador, Mr. Morgenthau, had remained at his post it is possible that some of these things could

have been prevented; yet it is quite likely that no American at Constantinople could have done much to change this more recent course of events. Mr. Abram Elkus, a Jewish lawyer of New York City, has been named by President Wilson as Mr. Morgenthau's successor. Mr. Elkus is a man of high attainments and great public spirit, who is exceptionally fitted for the Constantinople post. There is great work for him to do, and it is to be hoped that he may be able to render high service in the most critical and difficult period of Turkey's history.

*Allies
Uniting for
Trade*

We shall in subsequent numbers of the REVIEW give more extended discussion to the economic aspects of the European war. A recent conference of the Allies, at Paris, agreed upon the general outlines of a plan for something like commercial and financial union, not only during the remainder of the war, but for a first and a second period after the making of peace. This group of nations proposes to constitute some sort of an economic world of its own, to the exclusion not merely of Germany and her present allies but apparently also to the disadvantage of the nations that are neutral. The prospect of such a combination is not an agreeable one. The end of the present war should also end the kind of economic and imperial rivalry that produced the war. The Paris proposals are unsound in principle and cannot, it would seem to us, be carried out in practice. Profound changes, of course, must result from the death of so many trained industrial workers, and from the vast destruction of capital in war expenditure. It is not possible to see how any European nation can ever pay its war indebtedness. Americans who are constantly invited to subscribe to European war loans would do well to leave it to the munition makers and other beneficiaries of the war to take the risk of these investments. European workers will not remain patiently in their home countries and devote themselves for generations to the payment of interest on the war debts of 1914-17. Rather than do that they will migrate to North and South America, or other outlying regions. In point of fact, however, there will be socialistic financial schemes that will in some way distribute and equalize burdens, and create for each country the opportunity of a fresh start. Such harmonizing of the world as would permit nations to give up their expensive armies and navies would help to pay the interest on national debts.



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HON. ABRAM I. ELKUS, OF NEW YORK

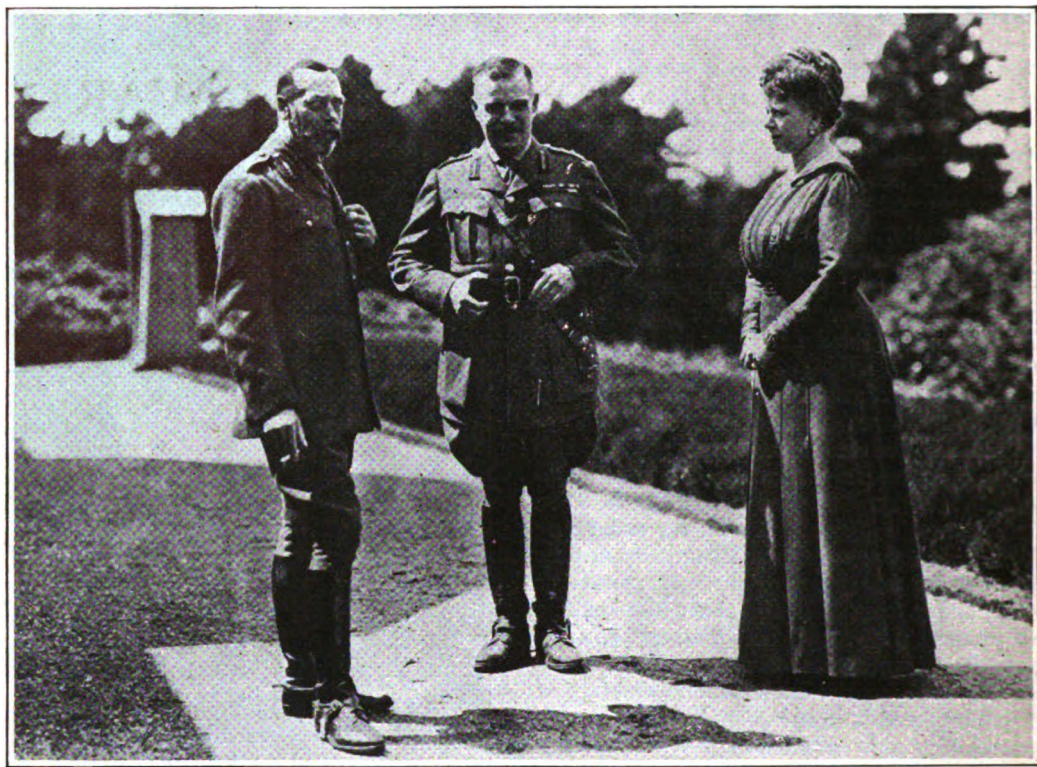
(Who will succeed Mr. Morgenthau as Ambassador to Turkey)

*The
Useful
Lloyd George*

Mr. Lloyd George seems to be the indispensable public man of the British Empire. He left the Chancellorship of the Exchequer to become Minister of Munitions, and he solved that problem. After the rebellion in Ireland he went to that country and worked out a settlement that is about to go into effect. Irish Home Rule is to begin almost at once, with a Parliament in Dublin made up of the present Irish members of the Westminster Parliament, except for six Ulster counties that will remain for the present as if they were a part of England or Scotland. This plan has the support of John Redmond and Sir Edward Carson, and is a good temporary compromise. Mr. Lloyd George passes from that task to the post left vacant by the death of Lord Kitchener, and he is now therefore Minister of War.

*A
Commercial
Submarine*

Our frontispiece shows the first German commercial submarine, the *Deutschland*. She evaded the Allies' ships of war and reached Baltimore early in July, with a cargo consisting of several hundred tons of valuable dyestuffs.



© by International Film Service

KING GEORGE AND QUEEN MARY IN THEIR GARDEN, WITH GENERAL SIR WILLIAM ROBERTSON, CHIEF OF STAFF OF THE BRITISH ARMY

The *Deutschland* was wholly unarmed, and in every sense entitled to the fullest rights and privileges of a merchantman. Her voyage was chiefly significant as illustrating the pluck and courage of the Germans under conditions of great difficulty. The *Deutschland* was to be followed at once by a larger "U-boat," named the *Bremen*, and others still larger were said to be approaching completion. The commercial importance of this movement is quite limited. The *Deutschland* was loaded with rubber and nickel and ready for her return before the 20th, although all statements given out were intended to mislead in order that she might elude and baffle the Allied warships that were lying in wait for her just outside of the capes at the mouth of the Chesapeake Bay. Her homeward voyage will have aroused the interest of the whole world.

Affairs
in the
Far East

Diverse explanations have been given of a new treaty between Russia and Japan, relating especially to their mutual interests in China. We prefer to believe that the main object of the treaty is to prevent future misunderstanding

and to insure economic and political order throughout the Far East. Both Russia and Japan declare that nothing in the treaty is adverse to American interests. It is wholly creditable to the Japanese that they are pushing their commerce with the utmost energy throughout all the regions touched by Pacific waters. They have a monopoly of the carrying trade; and this has given them a new foothold in the Philippines. What we gain by our tariff arrangements is now offset by the shipping discriminations that the Japanese are able to secure for their own traders. Having acquired the Philippines, it is not creditable that we do not trade with those islands under the American flag. An attempt is to be made at Washington to pass the Philippine bill (which has been lying dormant since the Senate amendments were rejected by the House) before the end of the session. It is a disadvantage that the Democrats do not know their own minds regarding our policy and position in the Pacific. In the debate on the Naval bill last month, Japan's ambitions were openly treated as a menace. For our part, we favor a large navy and perpetual friendship with Japan.

RECORD OF EVENTS IN THE WAR

(From June 21 to July 19, 1916)

The Last Part of June

June 21.—The United States informs Austria-Hungary that evidence in its possession justifies the belief that the attack on the American steamer *Petrolite*, in the Mediterranean, was a deliberate insult to the flag of the United States by the submarine commander, and requests that an apology be made.

June 22.—The Greek Government accedes to the demands of the Entente Powers, including complete demobilization of the army, the formation of a new cabinet without political color, and the dissolution of the Chamber with the subsequent holding of new elections.

Reports are received in London of a serious uprising against Turkish rule in Arabia, the outcome of the Pan-Arab movement; Mecca, the holy city, and Jeddah, the chief seaport, proclaim their independence.

June 23.—The Skouloudis ministry in Greece resigns, and former Premier Alexander Zaimis (said to be more favorable to the Entente Powers) is invited by the King to form a cabinet.

The official Russian statement declares that in three weeks' operations General Brusilof's armies in the south took 199,354 prisoners.

The whole of the Austrian crownland of Bukowina comes under the control of the Russians, as the Austrian army retreats into the foothills of the Carpathians.

In the attack on Verdun, the Germans win the Thiaumont field work, making the greatest gain since the capture of Fort Vaux on June 6.

June 25.—The British begin a violent and intense artillery bombardment of the German positions along the whole British front.

An Italian auxiliary cruiser and a French torpedo boat are torpedoed in the Strait of Otranto.

It is officially stated that the number of prisoners held for connection with the Irish rebellion is 1619; 161 others were convicted, and 1171 released.

June 27.—Reports from the Russian war zone indicate that the Germans have extended their lines southward, reinforcing the Austrians and checking the Russians in the Kovel district.

Belgian troops invading German East Africa reach the shore of Lake Victoria Nyanza.

June 28.—Dr. Karl Liebknecht, the German socialist leader, is sentenced to thirty months' imprisonment for peace activities which were adjudged to constitute attempted treason.

June 29.—Sir Roger Casement, the Irish leader, is convicted of high treason by a London jury and sentenced to be hanged.

June 30.—The French recapture the Thiaumont field work northeast of Verdun.

The Russian Duma passes a bill permanently prohibiting the sale of drink (excepting light wines) containing more than 1½ per cent of alcohol; the measure must pass the upper house.

The First Week of July

July 1.—A great Allied offensive against the Germans in France is launched by the British and French where their lines meet at the River Somme, on a front of about twenty miles; the attack was preceded by four days of artillery bombardment which destroyed barb-wire entanglements and the first and second lines of German trenches.

It is estimated that the Italian offensive against Austria has recaptured a third of the territory lost during the Austrian offensive of May 13 to June 16.

The Russians take Kolomea, an important center in eastern Galicia.

July 3.—Both French and British reports indicate slow but steady progress of their offensive movement in the region of the Somme River; the French make greater gains, having advanced at one point nearly six miles toward Peronne.

The blockade of Greece by the Allies, which caused Greece to accede to demands, is officially raised.

The Royal Commission which investigated the Irish rebellion criticizes conditions of lawlessness that had been permitted to exist, resulting in a widespread belief that no repressive measures against sedition would be undertaken by the government; former Chief Secretary for Ireland, Augustine Birrell, is held primarily responsible.

An imperial ukase suspends sittings of the Russian Duma until November 14.

July 4.—The Germans again capture Thiaumont, one of three great field works comprising the fortifications of Verdun to the northeast.

July 5.—An official Turkish statement announces the recapture from the Russians of Kermanshah, an important military and commercial point in Persia.

July 6.—The details of Lloyd George's scheme for provisional Home Rule for Ireland are made public, involving the exclusion of the six Ulster counties and the creation of an Irish parliament.

David Lloyd George is appointed Secretary for War in Great Britain.

July 6-7.—After several days of comparative quiet, the British resume their offensive north of the Somme and gain 3000 yards of German trenches.

July 7.—Official information regarding British munitions supply shows that there are 3,500,000 workers, including 666,000 women, engaged in war industries, and that there are 4000 controlled firms producing war munitions.

July 8.—The Russian offensive against the Germans and Austrians grows in power and scope; the immediate object is Kovel, an important railway center.

July 9.—A great German commercial submarine, the *Deutschland*, arrives at Baltimore after



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THE GERMAN COMMERCIAL SUBMARINE "DEUTSCHLAND," AT BALTIMORE, AFTER ITS TRANSATLANTIC VOYAGE

a transatlantic trip, during which she submerged only to pass Allied warships and other craft; the vessel carries 750 tons of chemicals and dyestuffs, and will attempt to return with a cargo of rubber and nickel.

Edwin Samuel Montagu (Financial Secretary of the Treasury) is appointed Minister of Munitions in Great Britain.

July 10.—A "food kitchen" is opened in a lower-class residential section of Berlin, where it is expected that 30,000 persons will be supplied daily with cooked food at low rates.

July 11.—The Germans renew their efforts to take Verdun, and gain ground east of the Meuse.

July 13.—Viscount Mersey, arbitrator in the case of the cargo of the *Wilhelmina* (an American vessel seized by the British in February, 1915), awards approximately \$390,000 to the owners.

July 14.—The British renew their attack on the second line of German trenches north of the Somme, breaking through on a four-mile front; the attack as before is preceded by several days' violent artillery bombardment.

July 15.—The British declare that the offensive against the Germans has resulted in the capture of 10,000 prisoners.

July 17.—The Russian official report states that 13,000 prisoners were taken in Volhynia on the previous day; the Germans admit a retirement across the Lipa River.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer states that the war cost to Great Britain has creased to \$30,000,000 a day.

July 18.—The British Government places eighty-two American firms and individuals in the class with which residents of the United Kingdom are forbidden to trade, under the Trading with the Enemy Act.

In an effort to arrest the British advance, the Germans launch an imposing counter-attack in the Somme region.

July 19.—The British recover most of the ground lost to the Germans in their counter-offensive.

RECORD OF OTHER EVENTS

(From June 21 to July 19, 1916)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

June 21.—The House amends the Army appropriation bill, increasing the provision for aeronautics by \$2,000,000.

July 22.—The House passes the Fortifications bill, carrying \$34,300,000, doubling the appropriations of last year.

June 23.—The House, by vote of 332 to 2, adopts a resolution authorizing the President to draft the State militia into the Federal service.

June 26.—The Senate approves the House resolution providing for the merger of the National Guard with the regular army for service in Mexico and along the border, but rejects the provision for payment of dependents of militia-men. . . . The House passes without roll-call the Army appropriation bill, carrying a total of \$182,000,000 or \$25,000,000 more than when reported from committee.

June 27.—The Senate adopts the Pension appropriation bill (\$158,065,000) and the Sundry Civil appropriation bill (\$128,000,000), and agrees to the Conference Report on the measure authorizing the expenditure of \$75,000,000 for good roads during the period of five years.

June 29.—The Senate passes the Post-Office appropriation bill (\$322,000,000).

June 30.—The Senate passes the Fortifications appropriation bill.

July 1.—In the Senate, the Naval bill is reported from committee, calling for the laying-down of ten battleships and six battle-cruisers within three years. . . . The House passes a special measure appropriating \$2,000,000, to pay \$50 monthly to dependent families of National Guard members who are without means of support. . . . In the House, the Ways and Means Committee introduces a special revenue bill designed to meet the extraordinary appropriations of the present session; income-tax rates are materially increased, and an inheritance tax and a tax on the manufacture of munitions are created; the measure also provides for a tariff commission, increased duties on dyestuffs, and "anti-dumping" legislation.

July 3.—In the Senate the Army appropriation bill is reported from committee, carrying the unprecedented total of \$330,598,000, being an increase of \$148,000,000 over the measure as it passed the House.

July 6.—The House begins debate upon the new Revenue bill, and agrees to vote on the measure July 10; the Democratic leader, Mr. Kitchin, of North Carolina, makes a plea for Republican support.

July 8.—The Senate Democrats, in caucus, amend the Administration's Shipping bill and agree to press the measure for passage; the amendments exclude the purchase of vessels owned in European countries now at war, those already engaged in American trade, and ships below 75 per cent of their original efficiency.

July 10.—The House passes the Administration's special Revenue bill by vote of 240 to 140; 40 Republicans vote for the measure.

July 11-12.—The Senate and House agree to the conference report on the Rivers and Harbors bill, appropriating \$42,000,000.

July 13.—The Senate begins discussion of the Naval appropriation bill; Mr. Swanson (Dem., Va.), and Mr. Lodge (Rep., Mass.), speak at length in favor of the measure.

July 18.—The Senate approves the enlarged construction program recommended by the Naval Committee and understood to bear the endorsement of President Wilson and Secretary Daniels.

July 19.—The Senate, by vote of 51 to 17, retains in the Naval bill the provision for a Government armor-plate plant.

AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

June 24.—Judge Hand, in the Federal District Court at New York, orders the dissolution of the Corn Products Refining Company, as an illegal trust operating in restraint of trade.

June 26.—The Progressive National Committee, meeting at Chicago, accepts the declination of Theodore Roosevelt and adopts his recommendation that the Progressive Party endorse Charles E. Hughes, Republican candidate for President.

June 27.—William R. Willcox, of New York, is elected Chairman of the Republican National Committee, to manage the Presidential campaign for Charles E. Hughes.

June 28.—Charles E. Hughes, Republican nominee for President, and ex-President Theodore Roosevelt confer at New York regarding campaign issues and plans.

July 1.—A statement from the Secretary of the Treasury at the close of the Government's fiscal year indicates a surplus of receipts over expenditures of \$78,737,810, compared with a deficit for the fiscal year 1915; the corporation and income-tax produced \$124,867,430, 50 per cent. more than the previous year.

July 3.—The President signs the measure passed by Congress providing for the incorporation of the militia into the regular army.

July 6.—Thomas Mott Osborne is reappointed Warden of Sing Sing Prison, following the complete failure of charges brought against him.

July 10.—The personnel of the Republican Campaign Committee is announced, made up of eleven Republicans and six Progressives.

July 11.—President Wilson signs the bill authorizing the expenditure of \$85,000,000 within five years for rural roads.

July 14.—The President nominates Federal Judge John Hessin Clarke, of Ohio, to be Associate Justice of the United States Supreme Court.

July 15.—Representative James Hay, of Virginia, chairman of the Military Affairs Committee, is nominated by the President as a Judge of the United States Court of Claims.

July 17.—The Rural Credits bill is signed by



GEN. TASKER H. BLISS, ASSISTANT CHIEF OF STAFF OF THE UNITED STATES ARMY

(Who went to the border last month to solve extraordinary problems resulting from the concentration of 90,000 militiamen in addition to perhaps 30,000 members of the regular army)

the President, creating twelve land-loan banks under the direction of a federal board.

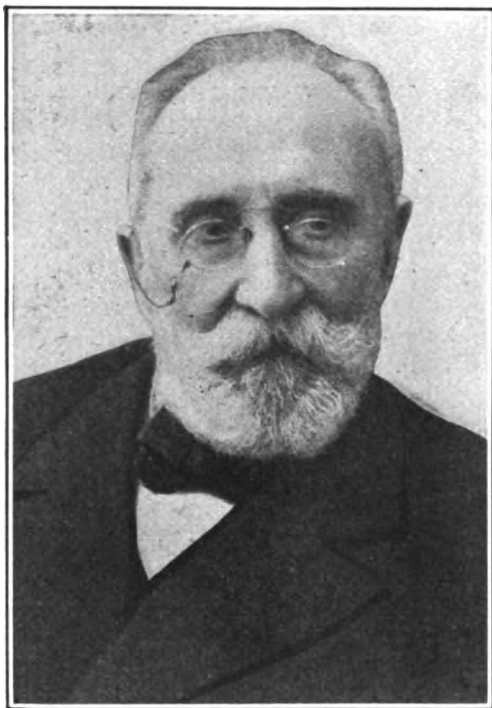
July 18.—Abram I. Elkus, the New York lawyer, is nominated by the President as Ambassador to Turkey, succeeding Henry Morgenthau.

THE AMERICAN EXPEDITION IN MEXICO

June 21.—The threat of Carranza—that American troops would be fired upon if they move east, west, or south—is carried out; at Carrizal a scouting force of less than 100 troopers of the Tenth Cavalry (colored) is attacked by a large Carranza force; Captain Boyd and Lieutenant Adair and a score of troopers are killed, and twenty-two are taken prisoners; the Mexican casualties include General Gomez, the commander.

June 22.—Secretary of State Lansing sends an identical note to the diplomatic representatives of South and Central American republics, stating that the United States has had for its object not intervention in Mexican affairs but defense of American territory. . . . The Navy Department is informed of an attack made upon a small boat from the U. S. S. *Annapolis* on June 18 at Mazatlan; landing to assist American refugees, two officers are arrested and the sailors in the boat fired upon; later the officers are released.

June 24.—The Mexican representative at Washington officially informs the United States that Chief Executive Carranza gave orders to his military commander not to permit American forces to advance further south or to move east or west, that these orders were brought to the



PAOLO BOSELLI, THE NEW PREMIER OF ITALY

(The dean of the Italian Parliament, in his eightieth year, was called to head a coalition ministry on June 19)

attention of General Pershing, that an American force moved eastward, and that it was engaged by Mexican troops at Carrizal.

June 25.—Secretary of State Lansing informs the Mexican Government that its communication of June 24 "is a formal avowal of deliberately hostile action"; he demands the release of prisoners taken, and asks for a statement of the course of action which the Mexican government has determined upon. . . . General Trevino, chief of the armies of northern Mexico, issues a call for volunteers to repel an American invasion. . . . The War Department orders that the militia organizations be dispatched to the border immediately without further concentration or training in mobilization camps.

June 27.—Mexican bandits cross the border at Hachita, N. M., and murder an American ranchman and his wife.

June 28.—General Carranza orders the release of the United States soldiers made prisoners during the Carrizal engagement.

June 30.—The first of the National Guard organizations—a battalion of Utah artillery—reaches the border.

July 3.—It is learned that the American forces in Mexico have been further withdrawn, so that the most southern position is at El Valle, 150 miles south of the border.

July 4.—The Carranza government in Mexico informs the United States that it is willing to consider, in a spirit of concord, remedies which should be applied to the present situation; it suggests an acceptance of Latin-American offers of mediation.

July 5.—A large band of Villa followers de-

feats and practically destroys a Carranza force at Carralitos, Chihuahua.

July 6.—The Secretary of War authorizes the discharge, upon request, of militiamen with dependent families.

July 7.—Secretary Lansing assures the Mexican government that the United States is prepared immediately to exchange views as to a practical plan to remove finally the conditions which have been the source of controversy.

July 10.—Acting Secretary of State Polk and the Carranza diplomatic representative at Washington, Eliseo Arredondo, begin a series of informal conferences at Washington in an endeavor to adjust the differences between the two governments by the creation of a joint commission. . . . It is estimated that in three weeks 60,000 militiamen from all parts of the country have been brought to the Mexican border.

FOREIGN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

June 27.—The Duke of Devonshire is appointed Governor-General of Canada, succeeding the Duke of Connaught.

July 9.—The Panama election results in the choice of Ramon M. Valdes, the followers of Rodolfo Chiari refusing to vote because of alleged frauds.

July 13.—Martial law is declared throughout Spain, on account of the strike of railway employees.



THE DUKE OF DEVONSHIRE, NEW GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF CANADA

(The successor of the Duke of Connaught is one of the great land-owners of England. Before his succession to the peerage, in 1908, he served as Member of Parliament and as Financial Secretary to the Treasury)

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

July 1.—An engagement occurs in the interior of Santo Domingo between revolutionists and United States marines; one American and twenty-seven Dominicans are killed.

July 5.—Rear-Admiral Caperton reports that an agreement has been reached with Santo Dominican revolutionists supporting General Arias, providing for disarmament and further discussion of domestic affairs.

July 6.—A political convention between Russia and Japan is signed at Petrograd, the avowed object being the maintenance of peace in the Far East.

July 10.—It is reported that a secret agreement has been reached between Peru and Venezuela to seize large tracts of lands involved in long-standing boundary disputes with Colombia and Ecuador.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

June 24.—An Argentine aeronaut, Bradley Zuloaga, crosses the Andes Mountains in a balloon, from Chile to Argentina.

July 1.—The New York *Sun* is purchased by Frank A. Munsey, who will merge the *Press* with it, the *Sun* thus obtaining an Associated Press franchise.

July 5.—An epidemic of infantile paralysis in New York City, already resulting in 134 deaths and threatening to get entirely beyond control, causes the Health Department to employ stringent emergency measures and nearby communities to adopt precautionary quarantine restrictions.

July 7.—Dr. Robert J. Aley, president of the University of Maine, is elected president of the National Education Association at the convention in New York City. . . . The Government's crop report indicates harvests better than the average but below last year's records.

July 12.—Sir Ernest Shackleton sails from Punta Arenas, Argentine, with an expedition to rescue twenty-two of his companions abandoned on Elephant Island in the Antarctic.

July 16.—Heavy rainfall causes serious floods in North Carolina and surrounding States, with great damage to property and crops and the loss of fifty lives.

July 17.—As the total of deaths from infantile paralysis in New York City reaches 400, a marked falling-off in the number of new cases is noticed for the first time.

OBITUARY

June 20.—Edward S. Ellis, noted as a writer of stories for boys, 76.

June 21.—Capt. Frank Holcomb Mason, for many years a distinguished member of the American consular service, 76.

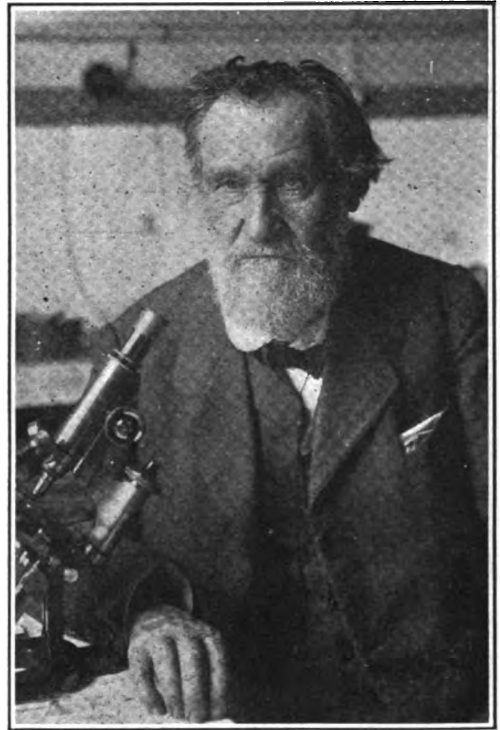
June 22.—Robert F. Hoxie, professor of political economy at the University of Chicago, 48.

June 27.—George A. Knight, a prominent San Francisco attorney and Republican leader, 65.

June 29.—Linn Boyd Porter ("Albert Ross"), the author, 65.

July 3.—Mrs. Hetty Green, the noted woman financier, 81.

July 5.—James Graham Cannon, a prominent New York bank president and authority on clearing-houses, 58.



DR. ELIE METCHNIKOFF, BACTERIOLOGIST

(Of Russian birth and education, Professor Metchnikoff won fame in Paris where he was called in 1888 to the Pasteur Institute, of which he later became director. In 1908 he was awarded the Nobel Prize for medicine. During recent years Metchnikoff devoted his researches to the prolongation of human life. All of his ancestors died young, but he had passed seventy-two when he died last month)

July 7.—Joseph Ramsey, Jr., ex-president of the Wabash Railroad, 66. . . . Howard P. Taylor, formerly widely known as dramatist and playwright, 78.

July 9.—James A. Blanchard, former Justice of the Supreme Court of New York, 71.

July 10.—Emory McClintock, a distinguished New York insurance actuary, 75.

July 11.—Sir William Wallace, for many years administrator of British interests in Nigeria, 59.

July 12.—Dr. Arthur Cleveland Cotton, a distinguished Chicago specialist in children's diseases, 69.

July 13.—Horace Davis, former president of the University of California and former member of Congress, 86. . . . Dr. Adam Cardenas, ex-President of Nicaragua.

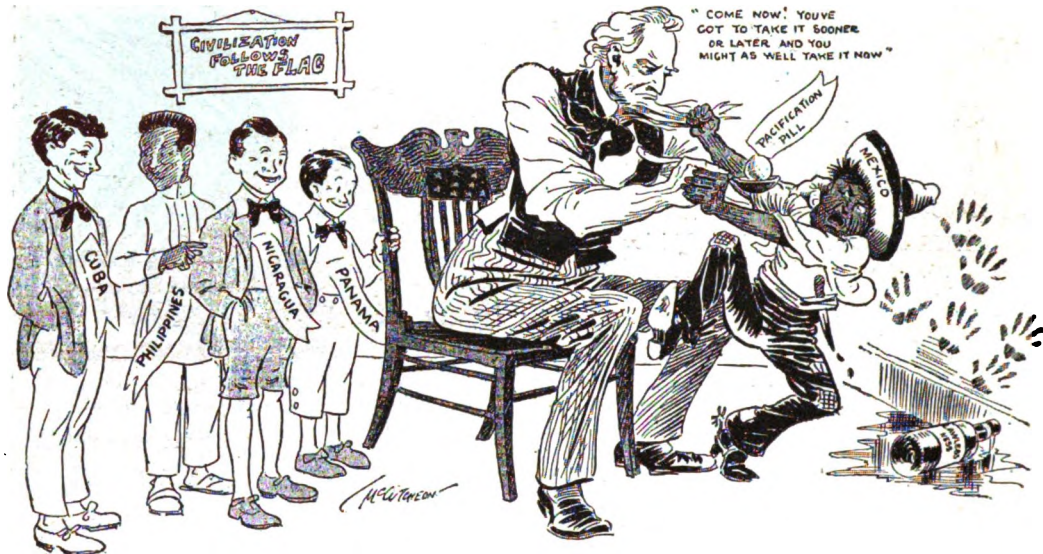
July 15.—Prof. Elie Metchnikoff, the famous bacteriologist, former head of Pasteur Institute of Paris, 72. . . . Hunter Holmes Moss, Representative in Congress from West Virginia, 42.

July 16.—Norman W. Harris, the Chicago banker and philanthropist, 69. . . . Rear-Adm. Charles H. Eldredge, U. S. N., retired, 75.

July 17.—John Glendenning, the English actor, well known on the American stage, 58.

July 18.—James H. Moore, the Chicago lawyer and capitalist, promoter of many large industrial corporations, 64.

CARTOON COMMENTS ON CURRENT EVENTS



© 1916, by John T. McCutcheon

IT'S FOR HIS OWN GOOD
From the Tribune (Chicago)

PACIFICATION for Mexico, if applied by Uncle Sam, would undoubtedly result beneficially for that country, just as

American civilization has followed the flag in other parts of the world. It is possible, however, that Mexico might be skeptical of this at first.



THE SWELLING IS GOING DOWN WITHOUT EVEN AN OPERATION From the Tribune (South Bend)



UNDOING HIS DEVILTRY
From the Pioneer Press (St. Paul)



"CONSIDER MY SIDE, SEÑOR SAM"
From the *News* (Newark)



THE PASSING OF CRISIS NO. 140
UNCLE SAM: "I'm through talking. Do what I say or we fight."
CARRANZA: "What! Do you really mean that?"
UNCLE SAM: "Yes; I mean it."
CARRANZA: "Oh, very well. I give up."
From the *Post* (Chicago)



STARTING ON ANOTHER ROUND
From the *Star* (St. Louis)



1918, by the Philadelphia Inquirer Co.
SITTING ON THE LID, "HONEST TER GOODNESS"
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia)

PRESIDENTIAL DILEMMAS



CARRANZA: "To be or not to be! A de facto government for a little while or a de jure government for a long time!"
(Mr. McCutcheon, in this cartoon, cleverly epitomizes the Presidential dilemmas of the Mexican question)
From the *Tribune* (Chicago)



WILSON: "If we pull out of Mexico, I'll be blamed for shirking our duty; if we go in, I'll be blamed for the disasters that will result from my failure to have our army ready."



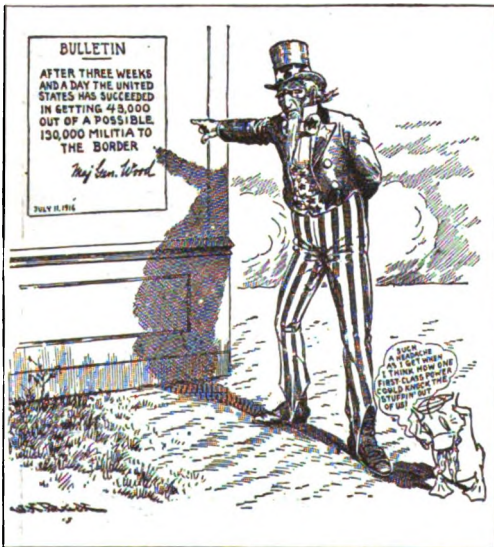
TWO PATRIOTIC AMERICANS
From the *World* © (New York)

The recent National Guard mobilization supplied the cartoonists with plenty of object-lessons with which to point their daily preachments on preparedness. It was a revelation of the American failure to be ready at a given moment to meet the nation's demands in equipment. But Kirby, of the *New York World*, found in the situation at least one inspiring element—the widespread disposition of employers to do their share for



HOME, SWEET HOME!
From the *Central Press* (Cleveland)

the country by keeping employees who were Guardsmen on full pay during absence on duty, and holding their jobs open pending their return.



SOME SYSTEM! "DO YOU CALL THAT PREPARED-NESS?"
From the *Times-Picayune* (New Orleans)



"HOW GRATIFYING!"
From the *Eagle* (Brooklyn)



CHALLENGED
From the *Tribune* (South Bend)



A WATER HAUL
From the *News* (Dayton)



© 1916, by John T. McCutcheon

The Germans Find It a Great Handicap in Their Submarine Warfare



And Now the Entente Allies Find It a Great Handicap in Their Operations Against German Commerce

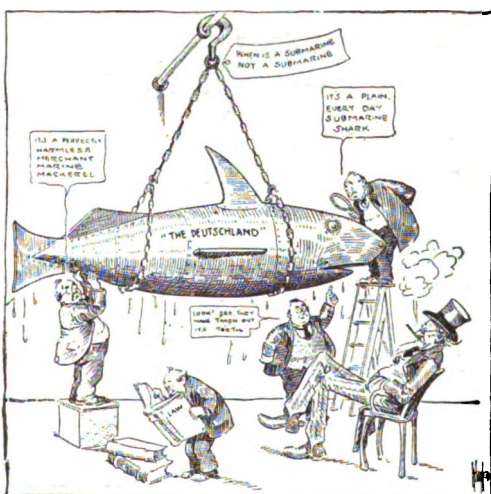
WHEN INTERNATIONAL LAW IS IRKSOME TO COMBATANTS

From the *Tribune* (Chicago)



© 1915, by Press Publishing Co.

NO FAVORITES!
From the *World* (New York)



UP AGAINST ANOTHER HARD ONE
From the *Dispatch* (Columbus)

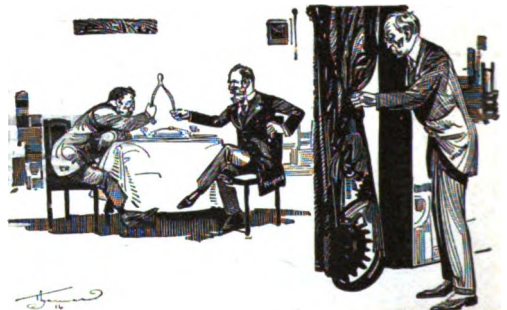


YOU CAN LEAD A MOOSE TO WATER, BUT YOU
CAN'T MAKE HIM DRINK
From the *Tribune* (Sioux City)



THE PRODIGAL RETURNS, BRINGING HIS OWN
FATTED CALF
From the *World-Herald* (Omaha)

The cartoons on this page suggest the predicament of the Progressive party and its erstwhile leaders resulting from Colonel Roosevelt's decision to support the Republican ticket this year. Whether the Moose vote can be "delivered" in November has been a much-debated question ever since the Colonel's intentions were declared in his telegram to the Progressive National Committee.



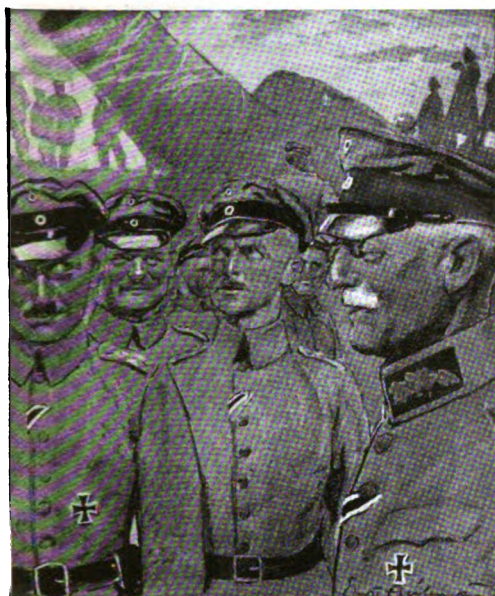
WHAT ARE T. R. AND HUGHES WISHING?
From the *News* (Detroit)



UP IN THE AIR
From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus)



GETTING RID OF THE MOOSE
From the *Dispatch* (Columbus)



AT VERDUN

GERMAN OFFICER: "My men; the enemy have not yet been able to understand our Chancellor's peace terms. We shall have to speak a little more strongly with them."

From the *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin)

The great struggle at Verdun has been reflected in numerous cartoons from the belligerent countries, those in the German papers maintaining a show of confidence, while the Allies picture the futility of the continued attempt. Austrian cartoons quite often strike a peace note.

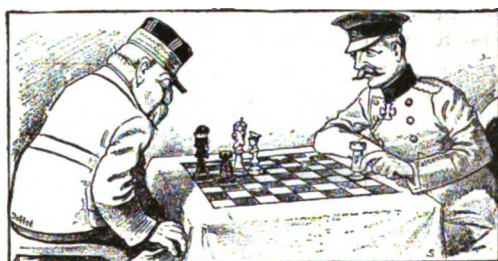


DURING A LULL IN THE FIGHTING

PEACE ANGEL: "Wait, Mars, I'll capture you yet."

MARS: "Go 'way, do leave me in peace."

From *Die Muskele* (Vienna)



THE CHESS GAME AT VERDUN

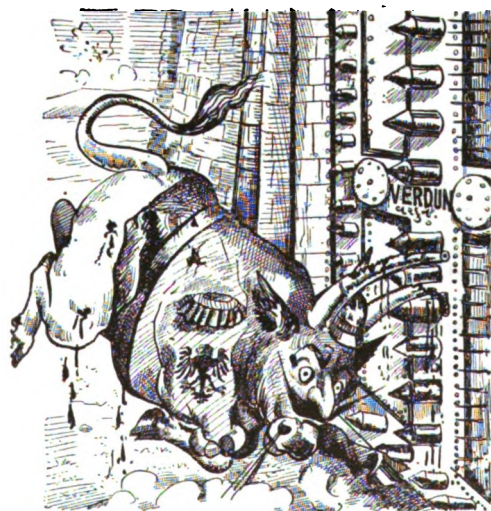
From *Kikeriki* (Vienna)



SOUR GRAPES

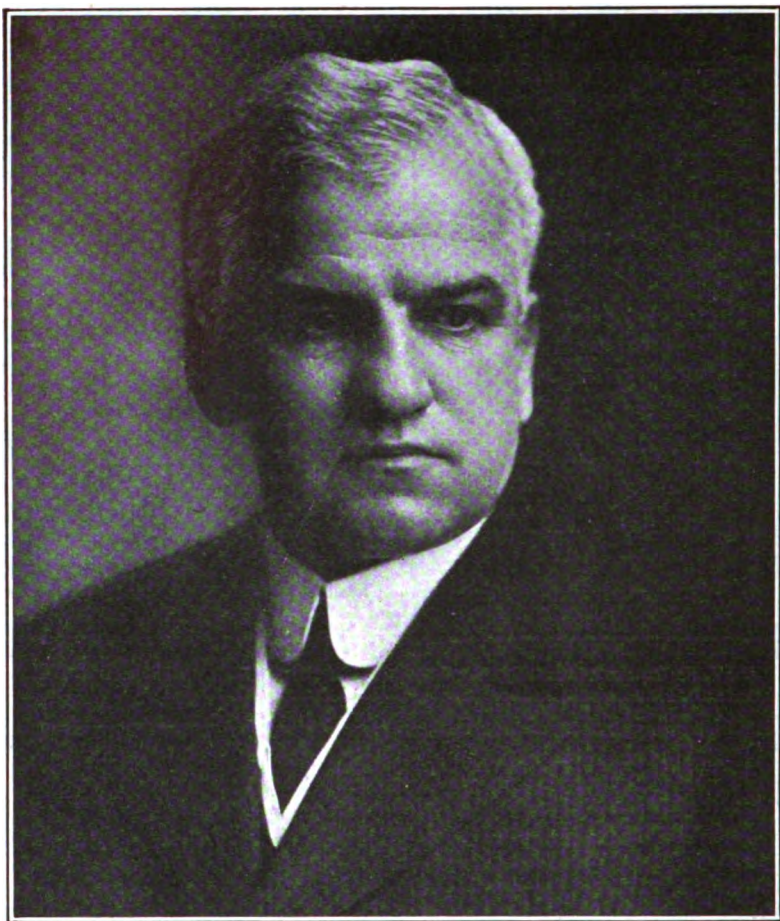
THE GERMAN FOX: "I don't want Verdun, anyhow!"

From *L'Asino* (Rome)



THE MAD GERMAN BULL HAS BEEN KNOCKING HIS HEAD AGAINST THE IRON DOOR THESE MANY MONTHS

From *Hindi Punch* (Bombay)



HON. JOHN H. CLARKE, OF OHIO, ASSOCIATE JUSTICE OF THE UNITED STATES SUPREME COURT

THE successor to Justice Hughes, who resigned his place on the bench when nominated for the Presidency, will be Judge John H. Clarke, of Ohio, who two years ago became Federal District Judge for the Cleveland district. Judge Clarke was born at Lisbon, O., in 1857. He was graduated at Western Reserve University in 1877, and in the following year was admitted to the bar. From that time until he was appointed District Judge in 1914 he continuously practised law before the Ohio courts, in the earlier years at Youngstown, and after 1897 at Cleveland. Although for some years general counsel of the Nickel Plate Railroad, Judge Clarke favored the radical policies advocated by the late Mayor Tom Johnson of Cleveland, who supported Clarke's candidacy

for the United States Senate against the late Mark Hanna. Judge Clarke has always been a Democrat in politics. His appointment to the Supreme Court bench, following the resignation of Mr. Hughes, leaves the State of New York without representation in the court. A majority of the judges are still Republican. As Federal District Judge at Cleveland, Judge Clarke dispensed with much red-tape and shortened court procedure by the application of time-saving devices. His court became famous for the ceremony with which he invested the naturalization of aliens. Each month he held a reception in his court-room for the newly made citizens, giving a program of music and speeches. Like Associate Justice McReynolds, Justice Clarke is a bachelor.

THE NATIONAL GUARD

ITS STATUS AND ITS DEFECTS

WHAT is the present status of the National Guardsmen as a result of the new military law of June 3, 1916, as compared with their previous status under the Dick bill of 1903? What changes have been made by the new law, and how do they affect the Federal relations of the citizen soldiers of the separate States? What are the obligations of the State military forces to the nation? What are the defects of the National Guard system as a whole and the remedies therefor, and what is there in the charges of inefficiency arising in the course of the recent mobilization?

These questions have interested not only the Guardsmen themselves, but also their families and friends, as well as prospective volunteers for enlistment and the public generally. In view of a considerable amount of confusion and ignorance on the whole National Guard subject along the lines mentioned, the following article, by one in full possession of the facts, attempts to explain some of the points in question.

PRIOR to 1903 there existed, in the various States, and as a part of the military system of the United States, a loosely controlled force variously known as "the National Guard," "the State militia," or more properly as "the organized militia." Membership in this organization was voluntary and without pay. The men were bound only by the terms of a rather lax enlistment period of three years. Each State controlled its own forces and governed them in accordance with the provisions of its own Constitution.

EFFECT OF THE DICK BILL OF 1903

In 1903 came Federal supervision and oversight through the agency of the Dick bill passed by Congress. This Dick bill, intended to increase the efficiency of the militia, provided among other things for an expenditure of \$2,000,000 yearly for arms and equipment, and \$2,000,000 yearly for the advancement of small-arms (rifle and pistol) target practise. While the National Defense Act of June 3, 1916, is a distinct advance from the scheme as laid down under the Dick bill, it carries along some of the defects of that measure and helps to perpetuate the faulty National Guard system.

Under both laws, tactical divisions—that is, complete military groups containing the proper proportion of infantry, cavalry, field artillery, and other units—were to be recruited according to population. This plan, under the old law, gave a total of 125,000

organized militia for the whole United States. The new law provides for a gradual increase from an immediate strength of 200 men for each Senator and Representative in Congress to a strength of 800 men for each Senator and Representative—a total of 400,000—this increase to be accomplished in five years.

THE NEW LAW OF JUNE, 1916

Under the old law the organized militia of the different States was "requested" to adopt the physical standards of the United States Army, and was allowed great latitude in the matter of discipline and drill, whereas the National Guard is now *required* to conform to the standards of the Regular Army in physical qualifications and discipline, which includes training and drill. If the men are found physically unfit they are not allowed to continue in a position which in time of war they would not be able satisfactorily to occupy.

They are also required to observe more carefully their obligations to the Government, and the general progress of each organization is continually kept in evidence by means of a careful and thorough system of reports and records which supplement the annual inspection. The old requirement of twenty-four (one and one-half hours each) drills during the year, with field training in camp for one week, has been increased to forty-eight of these 1½-hour drills, with an

additional field-service training of fifteen days.

While the increased benefit of double the amount of time spent in training is readily apparent, the increase of the field-service period was perhaps the most important feature of this change, as rifle and pistol target practise occur during the field-service period. Under the old law the time was so short that the entire year's training in this important branch of the work was usually confined to from one to two days, and every man was pushed rather than guided through the course of instruction. With the additional time now allowed, careful target practise is not only more possible, but more probable.

CHANGES IN ENLISTMENT CONDITIONS

In line with the doubling of the number of hours of instruction and the attempt to increase efficiency, the enlistment period has been increased from three years to six years. Three years of this "shall be in an active organization," and the remaining three years "in the National Guard reserve."

The qualifications for enlistment have also been made to conform to those of the Regular Army. The method of choosing officers is much improved, as they are now appointed not only from officers and members of the National Guard, but from "officers, active or retired, and former officers of the United States Army, Navy and Marine Corps; graduates of the United States Military and Naval Academies, and graduates of schools, colleges, and universities where military science is taught under the supervision of officers of the Regular Army."

Appointment is made after the applicants pass an examination as to their moral, physical, and professional qualifications, before a board of three regular or Guard officers appointed by the Secretary of War under rules and regulations established by the War Department. Officers may be removed for various military offenses, or by the recommendation of a board of officers appointed to pass on their qualifications or moral character.

Under the old law in the majority of States an officer was elected by the members of the organization with which he served. The legal and only method of depriving an officer of his commission for negligence or inefficiency varied from almost an impossible task in some States to more reasonable rules in others, and almost always political influence was involved. The evils of making the selection of an officer or his advancement dependent on the good will of the men under him are obvious. Under such

a system real discipline, either of the enlisted or commissioned personnel, was impossible.

CHIEF FEATURES OF THE NEW LAW

There are four features of the two laws mentioned in which the differences as between the old and the new are of great consequence to the National Guard. First comes the matter of payment for the services of both officers and enlisted men. While this is not large in amount (being for each enlisted grade but twenty-five per cent. of the corresponding grade in the Regular Army, and from \$200 to \$500 yearly for the commissioned grades), the effects of changing from no pay at all are important and far-reaching. Second, from a more or less heterogeneous organization—the logical result of governing the militia by the various State constitutions—the requirements of the new law compel the adoption of the Regular Army organization throughout. In addition to the benefits of this practical scheme of organization, a very important result is the ease with which the National Guard can be merged into the Regular Army in time of war. Thirdly, the new bill has made possible a general increase in efficiency.

While, as before, the efficiency and also the amount of money to be allotted are determined as far as the records are concerned largely by the attendance and drills at one annual inspection, this annual inspection is now backed up by a competent system of weekly records and reports which the organization commanders must furnish regularly. This prevents the possibility of a condition where organization commanders let things slide during the year, and then make desperate efforts to assemble the largest possible number of men for the annual inspection regardless of their previous attendance or training.

PAYING THE GUARDSMEN

The effect of paying the National Guard members is a feature that deserves more detailed explanation. To begin with, it is wrong to expect men continually to render efficient service without pay. Under the old law there was at the most no great sense of obligation, and, setting aside for the moment the fact that citizenship entails an obligation to the government, the majority of National Guardsmen undoubtedly felt that the obligation was on the other side, that they were giving their services without pay to an ungrateful, parsimonious government, and that even the community in which they lived was

at times unappreciative and derisive. It is not strange that men were habitually absent from drills, that the government property entrusted to the militia was carelessly handled, and that discipline was conspicuously lax.

Now, however, if an officer or man is absent from drills, he is liable to forfeit part of his pay. If he loses or injures Government property entrusted to his care, the money value is deducted from his pay. If he commits military offenses, a court-martial may assess against this same pay. One of the essentials of discipline is that prompt punishment should invariably follow the commission of an offense. As some of the methods of punishment possible in the Regular Army—such as extra work or restriction to the limits of the garrison or barracks—are not applicable to the National Guard, this loss of pay is practically the only punishment possible under the system. At any rate, it is a great advance from the old system, where practically no punishment for offenses or carelessness was possible and discipline was consequently lacking.

THE PRESIDENT'S POWER OVER THE NATIONAL GUARD

Another essential difference as between the new law and the old is in the power given to the President to order the movements of the Guard. Under the old law this was limited to calling out the Guard to repel invasion, suppress insurrection and rebellion. The President could not order these troops beyond the territorial limits of continental United States. In order to be used in aggressive service outside the borders it was necessary that the individual volunteer for such service. The act of June 3 last, however, provides that "when Congress shall have authorized the use of armed land forces . . . in excess of the Regular Army . . . the President may . . . draft into the military service all members of the National Guard. . . ." Nor are their services limited to any particular class of duty or to any particular territory.

When so drafted, the status of the Guard becomes temporarily that of the Volunteer Army and remains so until the President's order restores them to their previous status. The importance of this lies in the undivided control of the National Guard in time of war. It is automatically relieved of all allegiance to State authority, and becomes subject to the orders of the Federal Government alone.

The oath taken by every militiaman under the old law was to his State alone. Now he swears allegiance "to the United States of America and to the State of . . ." and binds himself to obey "the orders of the President of the United States and of the Governor of the State of . . ." There can, however, be no conflict as between State and Federal authority, for while his oath binds the National Guardsman to serve both, he does not serve both at the same time, but either the one or the other.

STATUS OF THE GUARDSMAN IN FEDERAL SERVICE

Should he join prior to the calling out of the Guard by the President, his obligation is to the State and his status is that of a National Guardsman not in the active service of the United States. Upon the call of the President his status automatically changes, and his obligation is then not to the State, but to the Federal Government. He, in other words, becomes a National Guardsman in the active service of the United States, and as such he is subject to "such laws . . . as may be applicable to members of the (Regular and) Volunteer Army."

Inasmuch as the Dick bill distinctly provided for their service outside the State, there is no injustice in mustering into the present National Guard the men who, it may be claimed, enlisted originally for State service only—unless the individual company commanders, through ignorance or deceit, withheld from the men information as to the provisions of the bill under which they were entering the service. It should also be added that every man, before entering the service, had the right to and should have investigated the provisions of the Dick bill and of his enlistment contract.

DEFECTS OF THE NATIONAL GUARD SYSTEM

In addition to the minor defects of the National Guard system already noted, the short and wholly inadequate period of training, even under the new law, should be pointed out. European recruits are not allowed to go to the front unless they have had a minimum of 1200 hours' training. Compare this with our seventy-two hours of training per year.

An evident source of danger is the evil of political interference. In no other phase of our national life does this manifest itself more than in the military service. This is a condition that the members of the National Guard will more fully appreciate

after six months' service under the Federal Government than they could ever learn in as many years of inactive service. The vast majority of National Guard officers appreciate this menace of political influence, and desire that the National Guard be completely federalized—that is, taken entirely out of the control of State politics.

Another serious defect which cannot be eliminated under the present system is the disinclination of the State authorities to deal with the National Guard from a standpoint of purely military efficiency. The National Guard organization is too apt to represent a certain number of *votes* rather than a certain number of future *defenders*.

DIFFICULTIES OF MOBILIZATION

It is not fair to charge the National Guard, *as it will exist*, with the mistakes and defects of the Guard *as it existed prior to the passage of the Act of June 3, 1916*. A good deal of confusion has been aroused in the public mind owing to the unusual condition under which the new law is going into effect. It is to be noted that, first, under its provisions, the Regular Army is just beginning a material increase in size and a material change in the composition of the units of its organization; second, the organized militia is being transformed into the National Guard. Both these changes are under the direct supervision of the War Department, a work which of itself is sufficient to occupy the attention of all directing officials of both the Army and organized militia. Third, the National Guard is being recruited to more than double its original strength, and is at the same time being mobilized. And fourth, the Guard is being concentrated at the Mexican border while all these changes are going on.

DELAYS IN MOBILIZING

There was a delay of from twenty to thirty days in mobilization. This was occasioned by a number of causes—namely, by the transfer of property to Federal control, by the physical examination of all men, by the raising of units from peace to war strength, and so on. In other words, the delay was an incident of the radical change of status and of the expansion of the force, and was not due to inefficient mobilization. At no time in the history of the United States has the mobilization of the National Guard been attempted under such difficulties as actually existed at the present time.

An inherent fault of the Guard system is that, like anything else short of universal training, it distributes the military burden unequally and results in sending from their occupations great numbers of men of affairs whose loss might well be expected to paralyze at least temporarily the national industries upon which the men at the front must depend for food, ammunition, and supplies of all kinds. It should also be pointed out that the plan of increasing the numbers of the Guard at a critical time from peace to war strength results in flooding the military organization with untrained men at a critical time, which creates a dangerous situation.

Nor must the individual Guardsman be condemned for inefficiency where matters have not gone smoothly. He deserves much credit for his well-nigh voluntary service. As the officers of the Federal Government come in closer contact with him and his kind, they see what enthusiastic, sincere, and valuable service can be secured from these men if the situation is properly handled. Whatever defects there may be in the militia are defects of the system and not of the individual members.

LACK OF EQUIPMENT AND TRANSPORTATION DIFFICULTIES

Much has been heard of the lack of equipment for the troops during recent weeks. The delay in securing this equipment was due to the fact that the enormous quantity of material constituting the reserve supply of arms and equipment necessary to increase the National Guard organizations from peace to war strength was held by the Federal Government in warehouses at a very few points, such as Philadelphia and St. Louis. This made the rapid distribution of these supplies to the places where needed almost a physical impossibility. The only practical remedy for such a glaring defect—which would have been far more apparent had the recent mobilization occurred at a time of real national peril—is to store the reserve supplies under government control in government warehouses in each State, so situated as to insure their rapid distribution to the mobilizing troops.

Transportation conditions also presented various difficulties. A feature which led to disaster in one State, and was a serious problem in another, was the attempt to mobilize

from 15,000 to 20,000 men in one camp, with but one railroad as a means of communication. For this one road to transport 15,000 men to one spot, and also handle their equipment, baggage, and daily food supplies, was a transportation problem so enormous as to be fully appreciated only by an expert railroad man.

The State and Federal Government were both equally at fault in not choosing and approving a plan by which the mobilization could be accomplished in several camps of from 3000 to 5000 men each, and so situated that, while they would be in proximity to each other, they could also have the advantage of rapid mobilization and the convenience and comfort afforded by the use of separate lines of railroad communication.

SHORTAGE OF FOOD

The newspapers reported raids by hungry guardsmen on stores at various stopping places. The fact is that the War Department had started all the men out with ten days' rations for a five days' trip. If the food supplies ran short, it could have been due to nothing but the inexperience of those in charge in making their daily apportionments, or to the wasteful methods of the men themselves. As for the soldiers breaking loose and indulging in depredations against private property, this was clearly a breach of discipline which can only be explained on the ground of lack of training and experience in both officers and men.

It is to be noted that, unfortunately, the political influence which has in past times played havoc with our military activities, has also been at work in the present mobilization. In the various State concentration camps are many units which the Government did not wish to call out, and has no use for at present, but which political influence succeeded in having ordered to State camps. Now these troops, both officers and men, are disappointed and angry because they have not been sent to the border; the politicians are pulling wires to have them sent there, but the Government really does not need them or want them, and meanwhile the families of many of the Guardsmen are actually suffering destitution.

GREEN MEN AND GREEN ANIMALS

What military efficiency the National Guard may have had was largely destroyed by the enormous influx of raw recruits incident to the change from peace to war strength. The increase in the case of most

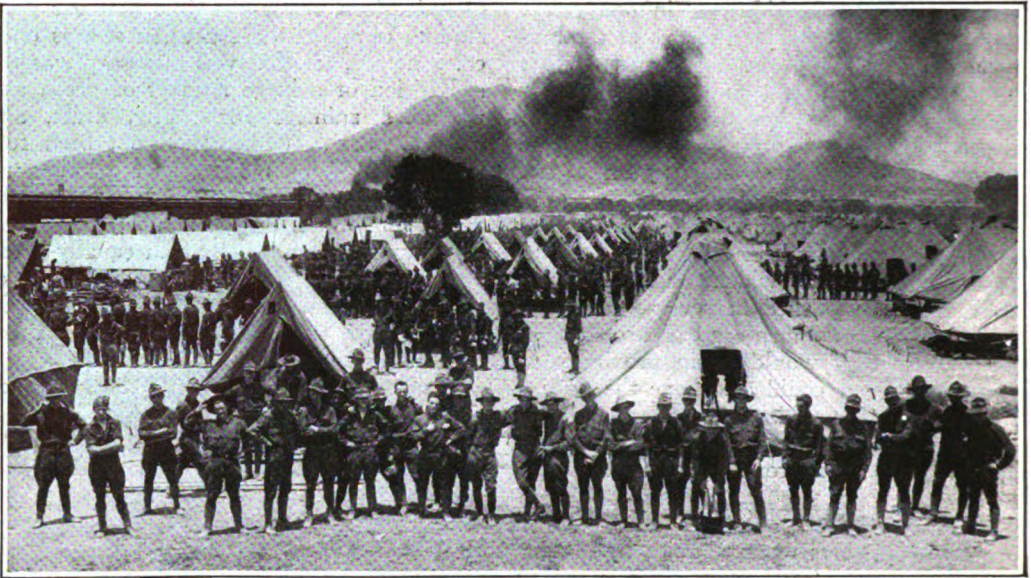
organizations was more than 100 per cent. And to complete the confusion at this critical juncture, all that was necessary was the acquisition of a large number of green and untrained animals, for riding, draft, and pack purposes. (These had not been furnished before the mobilization call because of the great cost involved.) When the horses and mules finally arrived, they were in many cases handled by men equally green and untrained. The daily sights at any of the mobilization camps afforded glaring illustrations of the fallacy of raising an "army of a million men over-night."

Such conditions can only be remedied through an awakening of the American people to the serious handicaps forced on the military establishment by a lack of proper preparation. Far from making sport of the experiences of the Guardsmen who went light-heartedly to the border, they should rather look on this as a narrow escape from a national calamity, and should seriously study the experiences of these men with a view to providing such a universal military training that a like dangerous condition can never again threaten the country.

UNIVERSAL TRAINING AS A SOLUTION

It is earnestly hoped that in time we shall all fully realize that the rushing off to a possible conflict of 100,000 or more civilians, dressed up as soldiers but totally incapable of properly defending themselves with the arms placed in their hands by the Federal Government, is nothing short of a criminal act. At the present time it would have resulted in the veritable sacrifice of 100,000 or more courageous Americans had the crisis been such as to pit them against a well-trained, efficient, and aggressive foe.

These loyal men will doubtless all return to their homes imbued with a keener appreciation of the many things a man must learn to be a soldier, as well as of the time necessary to acquire this training; also of the fact that military work is a life-study, like every other serious occupation—with this exception, that while mistakes in the business world are usually expressed in dollars and cents, military mistakes are all too often expressed in human lives. These men will undoubtedly realize, as every thinking man must realize, that universal military training, not compulsory *service*, is the only safe, efficient, fair-to-all method of putting our country in a position to preserve the right to live and work at peace with all the world.



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A GENERAL VIEW OF THE CAMP OF THE FIFTH INFANTRY, MASS., VOLUNTEER MILITIA, AT EL PASO.

MEN OF THE SEVENTH
NEW YORK DIGGING
TRENCHES AT MISSION,
TEXAS



Photograph by American Press Association, New York



THE FIRST ILLINOIS
CAVALRY UNLOADING
THEIR WAGON TRAIN
AT BROWNSVILLE,
TEXAS

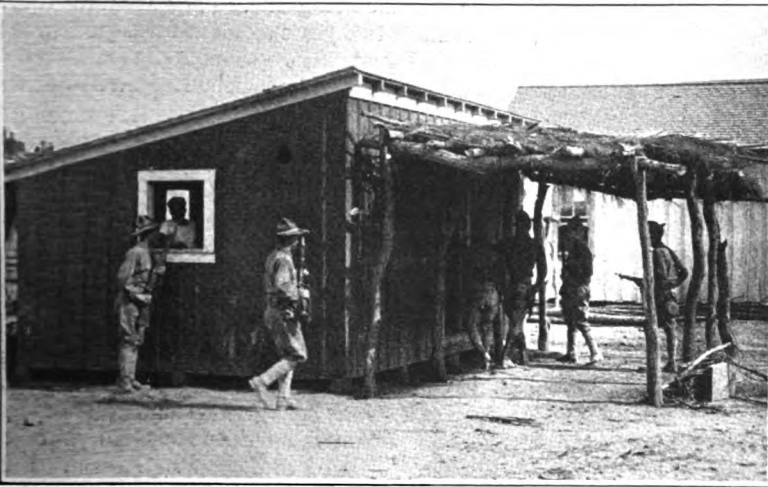
Photograph by Bain News Service

PENNSYLVANIA
TROOPS CLEARING AWAY
CACTUS AND PREPARING
THE GROUND FOR THEIR
ENCAMPMENT NEAR
FORT BLISS, TEXAS.



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MEMBERS OF THE SEC-
OND INFANTRY OF
TEXAS SEARCHING THE
HOME OF A MEXICAN
IN MADERO CITY, TEXAS,
FOR WEAPONS, TO PRE-
VENT SNIPING



Photograph by American Press Association, New York



Photograph by the American Press Association

THE CAMP OF THE SEVENTY-FIRST, NEW YORK, AT MC ALLEN, TEXAS

GERMANY LOSES THE INITIATIVE—BRITAIN BEGINS

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS

I. THE GREAT CHANGE

THE last days of the second year of the world conflict saw a momentous change.

For the first time the initiative on all fronts passed to the enemies of the Central Powers. In the East, the West, and the South, German and Austrian troops stood on the defensive, outnumbered and sensibly recoiling under furious assaults of Russian, Italian, British, and French troops. Even in the Balkans formidable Allied bombardments seemed to forecast an attack upon Bulgaria and Salonica. Nowhere save about Verdun, now without importance, did the Germans take the lead and here the results were immaterial, as they were inconsiderable.

Not less significant was the fact that at last the great British army showed itself ready for the operation which had long been expected of it and twice, at Neuve Chapelle and Loos, demanded of it in vain. These lines are written too soon after the opening of the British attack to warrant any estimate of the fighting quality the new armies have displayed, but after nearly three weeks they are still going forward and the blunders of Loos and Neuve Chapelle have not been repeated.

Looking backward we see now the whole great war drama unfolded in three acts: The German effort to dispose of France, which ended in the failure at the Marne and the stalemate in Flanders; the German effort to dispose of Russia, which terminated in the Pinsk Marshes and terminated in failure; the German effort to exhaust France, morally as well as physically, which came to naught in April, when the French were able to repulse the most desperate of the German assaults upon the Meuse lines and thereafter to hold them to a struggle without importance or issue.

Three times Germany, surrounded by enemies richer in men, in money, in all material resources, and having absolute control of the sea, strove to break the circle of fire about her and dispose of one of her foes,

as Napoleon disposed of Austria at Austerlitz, Prussia at Jena, and Russia at Friedland in the first and fortunate phase of his great career as Emperor. Three times she failed. Under her blows France and Russia staggered, but did not fall. Meantime there was left to Britain the time to make her new armies, to arm her millions and put them on the firing-line. They are now there.

Almost two years ago there was just such a chance for the Allies to seize the initiative as they have now taken. Defeated at the Marne, while her Austrian ally was routed at the San and the Bug, Germany seemed in a desperate posture. But only France of all the Allies had been even measurably ready, there were lacking to the British all troops save the few survivors of the first army, worn to tatters by Mons, Cambrai, the Aisne, and Ypres. France, having borne the brunt of the terrible first attack, was in no position to strike.

So the moment passed and Germany going east won her great campaign of last summer—won it on the battlefield, but lost the object, failed to dispose of Russia. Free again, Germany turned, first south to rescue Turkey and then west to deal with France. With Britain still unready France fought another Marne at the Meuse and held again. From February to July her gallant *poilus* clung to the hills of the Meuse above Verdun and beat off the most formidable and sustained attack this war has seen, and no other war suggests a parallel.

It was always certain that Germany and Austria would ultimately have to stand on the defensive unless they disposed of at least one of all their foes before Britain was ready. It was always certain that they would ultimately lose the initiative unless, while they possessed it, they turned it into a decisive victory over Russia or France. And their failure has been absolute, because all their foes are now on foot, determined and powerful. The last chance to win the war in the field ended for the Central Powers with the failure before Verdun.

It was the recognition of this fact that prompted the German proposals for peace two months ago. It was the realization of this fact that dictated the rejection of the proposals by the Allies. We are now entering, have already entered, a new phase of the war—the fourth act as I reckon it, counting the Marne, the Russian campaign, and the Verdun operations as the other three. Germany has failed to conquer her foes; they are now sufficiently strong in men and munitions to undertake the conquest of Germany. For two years German preparation and efficiency have overbalanced numbers, wealth, and sea-power, but there is no longer any advantage of preparation with her—rather it is with her foes.

II. THE CIVIL WAR PARALLEL

Go back again to the Civil War. For two years the South kept the initiative. She struck at Antietam, at Gettysburg, at Shiloh. Three times, twice in the East and once in the West, she sought a decision. She failed, and with Gettysburg and the concomitant fall of Vicksburg she lost the initiative forever. Henceforth it became a question not of conquering the North, but of holding it off until the people of the North wearied of the sterile sacrifices and the terrible cost.

It took nearly two years after Gettysburg to bring Appomattox. Grant's great offensive, of which the North expected so much, led only to the drawn battles of the Wilderness and Spottsylvania and the shambles of Cold Harbor in 1864. Yet in this terrible campaign, counted as a failure at the moment, Grant won the war. The South had neither the men nor the resources to replace the losses. While the lines before Richmond still held, the Confederacy crumbled to dust.

Now this is in sum what the Allies expect to happen in the case of Germany. They expect that the Germans and the Austrians will no longer be able to replace casualties as the British, the Russians, and the Italians patently can. Russia's man supply is inexhaustible; she has already proved this. Britain is only beginning to draw heavily on hers. Italy has made no draft to speak of. But France, like Germany and Austria, is approaching, if she has not reached, that point where she can no longer send fresh men to the front to replace losses and each casualty therefore diminishes the total of men in the line.

The Allies believe that the Germans and

Austrians are holding lines far too extended for their numbers. Lee did this at Richmond and lost his army. Napoleon did this in Eastern Germany in his last German campaign and suffered defeat, which turned out to be fatal. The Allies believe that by steady and concerted attacks upon all fronts they will presently wear the Germans and Austrians down to the point where they must shorten their lines or court disaster. But to shorten the lines is to confess defeat. To evacuate France or Poland is to lose the war absolutely, because these are the prizes Germany holds against her lost colonies and ocean commerce.

The Germans assert that they can hold their present lines indefinitely, that they can impose losses so great that the Allies will not be willing to pay the price. This was the argument of the South, proclaimed in the last newspaper printed in Richmond, which wet from the press fell into the hands of the victorious Northern troops that entered the town. The parallel may be wholly inexact; conceivably the Germans can hold. But this is the precise question that is now raised. This is the new issue.

No one in France, Russia, or Britain expects to reach the Rhine or the Oder this year. It is doubtful if there is any general hope in Allied capitals that Belgium can be liberated before snow flies. The Russians do not expect to approach Cracow or Posen, probably not to reclaim Warsaw or Lodz, before the year-end.

The utmost that the Allies hope is that France may be freed of German troops between the Meuse and the sea, that the German hold upon Belgium may be shaken, that Austria may have to surrender more of Galicia. So much for map hopes, but, what is more vital, the Allies hope and believe that the concentrated and continuing attack on all fronts will begin to wear down German power of resistance, tax German man-power beyond its limits, and establish clearly the ultimate outcome of the struggle if it is prolonged to its natural end.

We are at the beginning of four months of fighting, more intense, more bloody, more terrible than this war has yet seen. At its close the Allies believe that Germany will know herself beaten and knowing herself beaten be ready to discuss peace on the basis that peace can be had. The four months will cost Germany far more than a million casualties, they will cost Austria not less than half as many. Britain and Russia have the men to pay this price, while France and Italy

will make material contribution. But the real test must be in the casualty lists, in the capacity to bear them on the two sides of the battle-front. The war of exhaustion has at last reached the decisive point. And it is to the war of exhaustion rather than to the war of position that we must turn to find an answer to the riddle of the world war. Can Germany pay the price and hold? This is the whole question now.

III. THE BATTLE OF THE SOMME

In this article I purpose to discuss the Somme battle, the first step in the Allied offensive, in far greater detail than I have discussed other operations because I desire my readers to have a little glimpse of the future as well as the past of the movement now on foot.

Let us begin by clearing the ground. The Allied offensive will end in one of three things: (1) It will shortly be checked. If it is checked, then it is of no real value; it is to be compared with the German attack on Ypres in 1915 or on Verdun this year, with the Allied offensives in Champagne or Artois. (2) It will result in a sudden break in the German lines, wholly changing the face of the Western war. (3) It will continue as a long, steady pounding, with slow but sure gains by the Allies, following in some fashion the analogy of Grant's advance from the Rapidan to the James, which failed of any decisive success, but did result in material gains of ground and ultimately exhausted the man-power of his foe.

Now if the movement is soon checked, there is no use to discuss it. The chances of a sudden break are small; it may come, there is always the possibility, but it is too remote to warrant speculation here.

There remains the third possibility. The Allies may slowly but steadily push the Germans back over considerable ground. This is what I personally look for. The question of success or failure will be decided on the price the Allies pay for their progress and their capacity to continue to pay the price. These things are problematical, but at all events we can now examine the ground upon which they have chosen to attack. We can examine the progress that has so far been made. We can see clearly enough what the Allies are aiming at, both in their immediate front and behind this. We can forecast what will happen if they are able to carry out their plans as they have laid them.

First of all, why did the French and Brit-

ish select the Somme Valley as the point of attack? It is not possible to answer this question wholly. We do not know whether they discovered some weakness there, or at the least decided this was the weakest point in the German line. Perhaps it was because at this point the French and British lines join, and this permitted a coöperation between Foch and Haig.

Now as to the point of attack: Look at the map and you will see that near the Somme River two wide circles in the battle-front meet. One wide circle, or semi-circle, comes all the way round from Champagne, from Berry-au-bac, near Rheims. The other is a far smaller circle, enclosing Bapaume and meeting the northern part of the line at Arras.

In military phrase these two semi-circles are salients, that is, bulges, extending into the Allied line and held by the Germans.

If the French and British were able to penetrate the German line, just where the two semi-circles or salients meet, which is at the Somme River, as they advanced they would be far in the rear of the German troops at the extreme points of the salients, that is, west of Bapaume in the Ancre Valley, in the northern salient, and in Roye, Chaulnes, Noyon, and before Soissons in the southern. If the Allied advance continued, the Germans in these extreme points would presently have to retreat to avoid being cut off by the troops advancing across their rear and lines of communication. This would happen very soon in the case of the Bapaume salient because it is very small; it would not happen for a very long time in the case of the Noyon salient, because it is very large and the Allies would have to cut deeply in order to menace the Germans.

If the Germans were compelled to abandon the Bapaume salient they would have to retire from their first and second and possibly their third line trenches over a front from Arras to the Somme, rather more than thirty miles. If they were compelled to leave their Noyon salient, they would have to give up at least fifty or sixty miles of front and a very considerable area beside, including their territory nearest to Paris.

Now look at the map again and you will see that the whole German position in France is in itself a salient, a huge salient, coming west from the Meuse and bending north at the Oise near Noyon. Hence if the British and French were able to make a very deep cut into the German lines, advancing as they are from west to east, the Germans would presently have to leave all

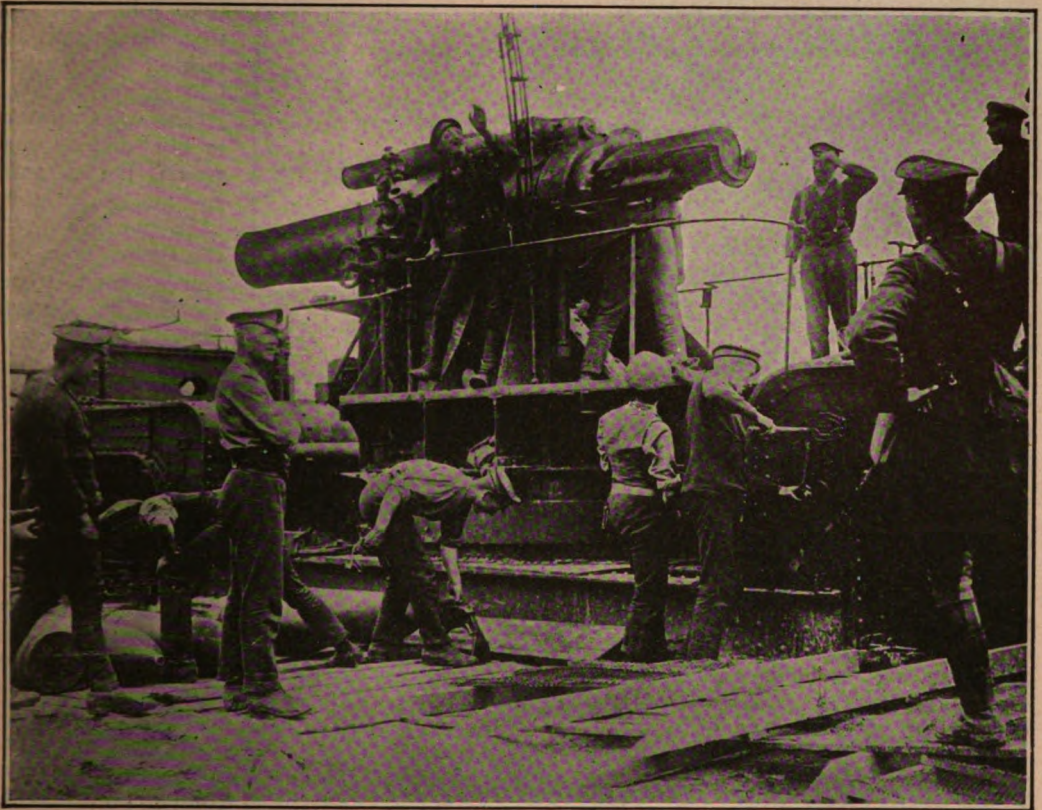


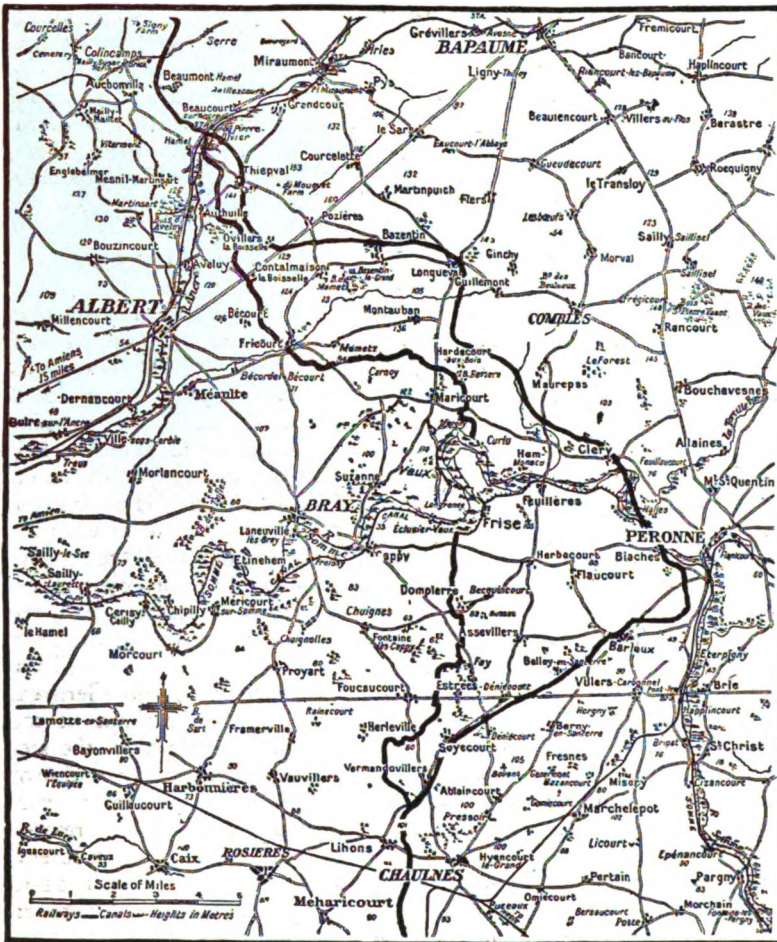
Photo by Am. Press Ass'n

MOVING A BIG BRITISH GUN INTO POSITION IN THE FIGHTING ON THE WEST FRONT IN FRANCE



THE CONDITION OF THE DEFENSES ON HILL 304 AFTER A TERRIFIC BOMBARDMENT

(This picture shows how the trenches are torn and battered by the tremendous artillery fire which precedes the advance of troops toward the enemy's lines. The piled up sandbags and the trench timbers rapidly become an unrecognizable mass of débris, under which the defenders are often buried)



SCENE OF THE NEW ALLIED OFFENSIVE

Northern France south of the Meuse and the Belgian frontier, to avoid being cut off by this attack, which would move through their west front and across their rear.

IV. WHAT HAS HAPPENED

Having thus roughly sketched what might happen, let us examine what actually did happen and then use the material thus acquired to explain the future.

On or about July 1 the French and British troops on either bank of the Somme, facing east and holding the front before the little town of Albert, suddenly attacked the German lines. The attack was preceded by many days of terrible bombardment along the whole front, the orthodox prelude to an attack in trench war.

The attack was launched upon a front of sixteen miles, about twice as broad as the first German attacking front at Verdun and

two miles shorter than the French attacking front in Champagne. The front was pretty evenly divided between the French and the British.

In the first phase the French were far more successful than the British. In less than a week they had got forward four miles and they soon expanded this to six. They approached the town of Péronne, captured the suburb of Biaches and Hill No. 97, which commands Péronne and the valley of the Somme between the French and the town. On the north bank of the Somme they reached Hardecourt, four miles from their starting place, and came to the edge of Cléry, which is perhaps five. It is hinted that the Germans did not expect any

attack from the French and were taken by surprise. This may explain the larger French success; it may have been due to better organization, but at all events the French did their work first and did it effectively. They were done by July 10, and were then looking down on Péronne, which they had lost on October 1, 1914.

The British did not move as rapidly. They were checked after their first drive and it was not until July 15 that they reported the taking of Longueval, which brought their line as far east as the French position of Hardecourt, due south of Longueval. But in the meantime the British had begun to strike north as well as east and to take a series of little towns due north of their line of communications. In other words, the French having driven a wedge into the German lines, the British at once took advantage of this wedge and began to widen it by striking north at the same time they struck east.

At the time these lines are written, July 19, the situation is about this: Together the French and British have driven a wedge into the German lines. At its base, which rests on the old front, this wedge is sixteen miles wide. Four miles east, between Estrées and Longueval, it is ten miles wide.

At its point, just opposite Péronne, it is rather less than two miles wide. This represents the greatest advance the Allies have made since the trench war began and the French have covered about the same distance before Péronne in ten days that the Germans covered before Verdun in considerably more than a hundred. At Longueval and Bazentin-le-Petit the British are inside the German second line for the first time in trench warfare. Together the French and British have taken upwards of 23,000 prisoners and many guns. This is a smaller bag than the Champagne-Artois attack netted and considerably smaller than the Verdun bag of the Germans.

Now the effect of driving in this wedge has been this: The British at Longueval are at least ten miles further east than the Germans in the extreme point of the Bapaume salient. They are endeavoring to advance, not east but north, that is, toward Bapaume, not Péronne, and the effect of their advance is threatening the lines of communication of the Germans northeast of them. If they can get to Bapaume, which is rather more than five miles due north of Longueval, then the Germans will have to come out of the whole salient and form a new line running between Péronne and the outskirts of Arras, which they hold.

On their side the French are now endeavoring to strike south, not east. They are several miles further east than the Germans in Chaulnes and Roye and they are striking at the communications of these troops. They are fighting to get possession of several little villages, Barleux and Beruy-en-Santerre among them. They are not attempting to get Péronne, which is on the other side of the Somme from them, surrounded by marshes and dominated by hills to north and east.

If the French are able to get south a mile or two on their side of the salient the Germans will have to leave Chaulnes and probably Roye, this will mean giving over a good many miles of French territory and may even involve quitting Noyon. But they can stand behind the Somme from Péronne to Ham and then across the hills to the Oise at Chauny. They will not be threatened with

envelopment, that is, they can escape unless they hang on beyond all reason and this is utterly unlikely. The most that is in immediate prospect for the Allies, if they can keep on, is to shorten their own lines by turning the Germans out of Bapaume, Roye, Chaulnes, and Noyon and recover some hundreds of miles of French soil.

V. WHAT MAY HAPPEN

Let us now assume for the moment that the French presently succeed in pushing south, the British north, for the few miles that will compel the Germans to go back behind Bapaume and behind the Somme from Péronne to Ham. The German line will then run pretty straight south from Arras through Péronne and Ham to the Oise, either at Noyon, as now, or at Chauny, a few miles to the northeast. What then?

If the Germans have constructed a reserve line somewhere along this position, the Allies will have to begin all over again. They will have to begin as they began before. They will be in the same position as the Germans after they had broken the first line of the French at Verdun and advanced to the second. We shall have another bombardment and all the familiar details of trench warfare. But if the Germans have no reserve line, then the situation will be very different, then we shall have a war in the open again over fifty or sixty miles of front, between the German trenches at Arras and the Oise River. Then the Allies, by driving in a wedge will have turned the Germans out of a very wide section of their trenches and compelled them to fight in the open, where the superior numbers of the Allies will tell very heavily against them.

When the Germans broke the first French line at Verdun, the French had prepared no second line. They had, of course, the old forts and they had relied on them. The most expensive thing to the French in the whole Verdun operation was restoring their line, that is, building a new line behind the one that had been broken. It was expensive because the Germans had to be held back while it was being done. As it was, Douaumont was lost and the situation was critical for some days. Not impossibly the German resistance and counter-attacking now is covering the preparation of a reserve line, but this is mere conjecture.

At all events we see clearly that the French and British advance has got to a point where it is a grave threat to German

positions to the north and south at Bapaume, Roye, and Chaulnes. We see that the French have been rather sharply checked and that the British are still advancing. In point of fact the latest German bulletins claim slight success for a German counter-attack in Biaches. We see that if they get a little further north the Bapaume salient will go and if the French get a little south Chaulnes and Roye will have to go.

Looking now to the large field, what may happen if the British are able to push on—and it is to the British that we must look for the burden of the achievement; for the French did their share at Verdun. Some twenty miles almost due east of Bapaume is the town of Cambrai, which gave its name to Smith-Dorrien's battle on the most critical day of the Great Retreat, although the action was fought some miles to the east. Cambrai is the junction point of two railroads of utmost importance to the Germans, the main lines of communication of the Germans between Lille and the Oise. If the British could lay hands upon Cambrai, then it would be fairly certain that the Germans would have to come out of all their line from Soissons to Arras and their position in Lille would be gravely threatened. In addition Cambrai is the center of a number of national highways, even more important to the Germans than the railroads.

It is fair to conclude, then, that the ultimate British objective is Cambrai. They will be twenty miles distant from it if they get Bapaume. They are twenty-five as it stands, but this is from the south. From the northwest they are only twenty miles away now in Arras. From both Arras and Albert, which they hold, national highways converge upon Cambrai and we may look to see an effort to reach the town both ways.

Less than twenty miles from the French position before Péronne is the considerable city of St. Quentin. This is also an important railroad and highway center and if the French could get into it, all the German positions to the south would go and the Germans would have to come back close to the Belgian frontier, giving up Laon and La Fere and probably retiring from the Champagne Plain north of the Aisne.

We may then take Cambrai and St. Quentin as the probable objectives of the Allied offensive, insofar as it is aimed at objectives. Its main purpose is to strive for the exhaustion of the German reserves. If the French and British can cover the twenty miles that lie between them and either of

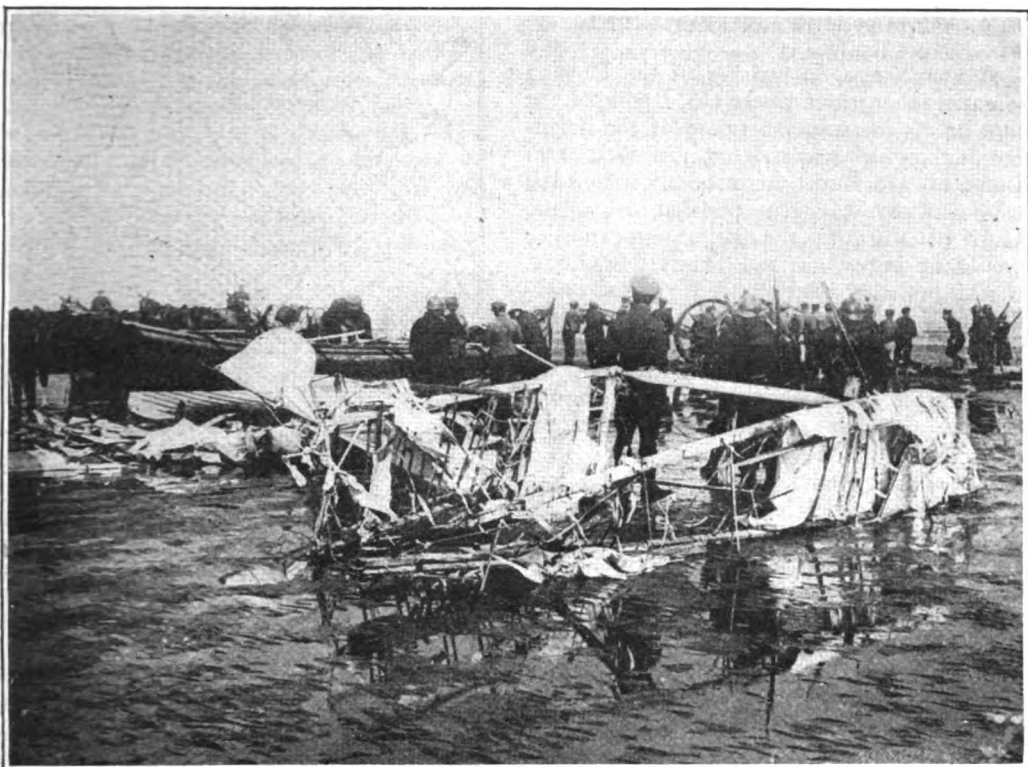
these two objectives the Germans will have to quit much of France. If the British get Cambrai, they may have to evacuate all France now held by them between the Argonne and Lille. As it stands, the Allies, to use Mr. Asquith's words, are only "just beginning," but they have made a beginning which marks a new phase in the war.

Perhaps I should add, for the sake of clarity, that the foregoing is not a prophecy. So many times I have been criticized for forecasting something, when I have merely pointed out that it was the purpose of one side or the other to do the thing described. There is nothing yet to show that the Allies will succeed or fail. The Russians have just carried out an offensive on a grand scale. A far smaller gain of ground by the French or British would mean the retirement of the Germans from France.

But the history of the various offensives shows that usually the great gains are made in the first days. The Germans gained upwards of four miles before Verdun in as many days; they have not got much more than two miles forward since then, that is, in four months. The French have been sharply checked to the south of Péronne and are not making any effort to advance toward the east; in fact, they are resisting strong counter-attacks in Biaches.

The Germans have had plenty of time to concentrate men since they found out from what quarter the storm was coming. We may see the whole operation checked in a few days. We may see it change to the Verdun type of foot-by-foot advance at terrific cost. This is what the Allies expect. But the objectives are plain. If they are attained, certain things will happen and the thing to do is to watch, first, the villages south of Bapaume, such as Martinpuch and also the villages, such as Carbonel, Beruy-en-Santerre, and Barleux, south of the French line, and then to watch Bapaume, Roye, Chaulnes, and Noyon. Finally Cambrai and St. Quentin may be accepted as the ultimate goals of the two Allies, if they are able to keep on.

Perhaps the most significant thing in the whole operation is the tone taken about it by Berlin commentators. There is in the German capital not the smallest effort to minimize its possibilities, although the confidence that these possibilities will not be realized is absolute. In point of fact we are at the beginning of a great campaign and the stakes are becoming apparent. That is all that can safely or wisely be said now.



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THE WRECKAGE OF A GERMAN AEROPLANE ON THE BEACH AT LA PANNE

(This Aviatik biplane attempted to bomb the residence of the King and Queen of Belgium at La Panne. A Belgian aviator started in pursuit and sent it down into the water)



© International Film Service

A TRIO OF FRENCH "POILUS" IN THE BOMB-PROOF SHELTER

Aug.—4



A WAGON WHEEL MOUNT FOR AN ANTI-AIRCRAFT MITRAILLEUSE, ENABLING IT TO REVOLVE AND FIRE IN ANY DIRECTION

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VI. WHAT RUSSIA DID

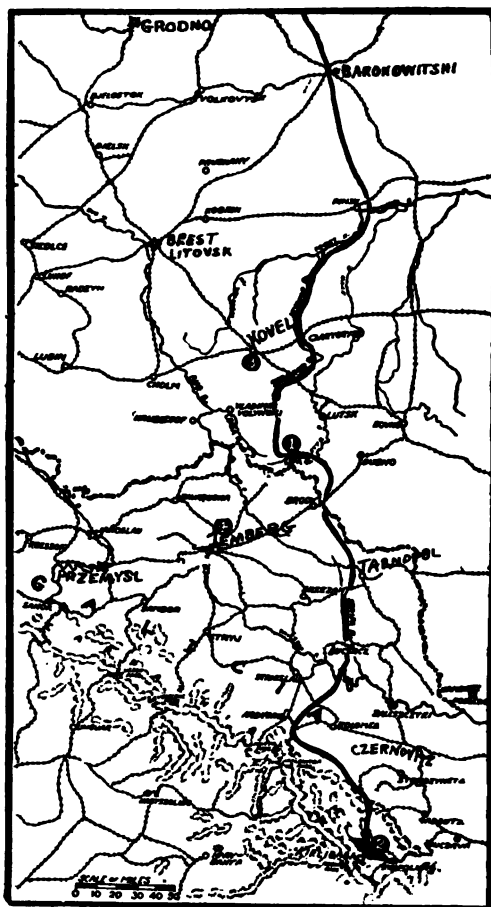
A month ago, in writing of the Russian offensive, then three weeks old, I pointed out that unless the forward sweep of the northern flank, which was striking northwest from Lutsk toward Kovel were shortly halted the whole Austro-German position from the Gulf of Riga to the Rumanian frontier would be imperilled and the fall of Kovel would probably necessitate a general withdrawal. I also called attention to the advance of the southern flank, already beyond Czernowitz and moving northwest in the direction of Lemberg and having its immediate objective the important railroad center of Kolomea.

The Russian advance toward Kovel was promptly and effectively checked by German reinforcements hurried down from the north and from the west by the two railroads, one coming from Brest-Litovsk, the other from Lublin and Warsaw. For nearly a month the Russians have made no sensible advance at the point of their wedge, which was nearest to Vladmir-Wolinski, a town some miles south of Kovel. Originally they had broken through the German line on a front of some fifty miles between the Styr at Lutsk and the Austrian frontier at Brody.

For nearly three weeks German and Austrian troops were hurled at the northern side of this wedge, southeast of Kovel, and the most desperate fighting took place along the Styr River at Kolki and Sokul, the Russians attempting to advance west and north, the Germans striving to come south across the river and cut off the troops in the point of the wedge and west of Kolki. In the end the Germans gave up the effort and fell back on a very wide front from the Styr to the Stachod River, which flows north and south parallel to the Styr and some twenty miles to the west of it.

The Russians then advanced along this whole front from the Pripet Marshes, straightening out their entire line from the Marshes to the Austrian frontier at Brody. They then began a new drive across the Stachod River, the last considerable obstacle in their pathway before they came to the Turja, another river flowing parallel to the Styr and the Stachod and again twenty miles to the west. Kovel, the objective of the Russians, is situated at the point where the two railroads coming west out of Russia toward Poland cross the Turja.

So far the Russians have not been able to cross the Stachod except at isolated points



THE RUSSIAN FRONT IN JULY

and have nowhere been able to advance toward Kovel from the west bank. The fighting here has been terrible and is still continuing. A little to the south of the Stachod, which at its start flows from east to west for a few miles, the Russians are now reported to have made material progress and the Germans admit a retirement behind the lower Lipa, just north of the Galician frontier. But this advance is in the direction of Lemberg, not Kovel, and Lemberg is at least sixty-five miles south and west of the present head of the Russian columns and in no immediate danger from this quarter.

Conceivably the Germans will now withdraw behind the Turja, from the Pripet Marshes to the point where the Turja and the Bug are only ten miles apart. Standing behind the Turja and the Bug, which flows from southeast to northwest half way between Lemberg and the Russian frontier, they will have an admirable line of defense, prolonged to the Dniester by the Gnila Lipa.

It was on this line that the Austrians elected to defend Lemberg in 1914 and suffered decisive defeat, because of the success of a Russian turning movement still further to the south, where the Russians are again striving to get forward.

If the Germans can hold this line and definitely check the Russians here, in front of Kovel and Vladmir Wolinski, then their lines north of the Pripet Marshes will not be imperilled. If they fail and the Russians get across the Turja and the Bug, take Kovel, Vladmir-Wolinski, and approach Lemberg, then momentous changes seem inevitable. But, measured by their progress in the past month, the Russians will not in any event be able to do this in the next four weeks. They will do more than can reasonably be expected of them if they are able to approach this line in that time. They have suffered tremendous losses, they have used up vast quantities of munitions; they have got many miles beyond their railheads and are in difficult territory. All told they have made at least fifty miles on a front of more than a hundred from Pripet well down toward Brody. Aside from the push toward the Lipa, which again opens the question of Lemberg, they seem to have come to a halt, which was to be expected.

Of the Russian center it is enough to say that it has practically stood still. It is faced by admirable troops, possessed of many railroad lines, and these have been able to hold on, losing rather less than ten miles on a wide front from Brody to the Dniester, facing Tarnopol. This Austro-German army is not yet threatened by envelopment, although Russian armies to the north and south of it are further west, because it can move far more quickly than the Russians, thanks to the railroads, and its flanks are protected by the Bug and the Dniester. If the Germans presently decide to retire to the Turja and the Bug, on the north, it can go back to the Gnila Lipa and prolong the front, covering Lemberg. Its real menace will come from the south, precisely as the same menace ultimately turned the Austrians out of Lemberg in September, 1914. But this is still a remote contingency.

Looking now to the south, it becomes plain that the Russians have here accomplished remarkable things. Four weeks ago they had barely taken Czernowitz. Now they occupy all of Bukovina to the Carpathians, are crowding up the Kirilibaba Pass toward Transylvania, have pushed north-west out of Bukovina, and, taking the vital

railroad junction of Kolomea, they have got still further west and cut the southernmost of the trunk lines crossing the Carpathians and connecting Lemberg with Budapest. They are in the outskirts of the considerable town of Delatyn on this line, and its fall seems likely.

Actually, then, the southern wing of the Russians is moving along the Carpathians and between them and the Dniester, threatening all the railroads crossing the Carpathians between Lemberg and Hungary, and in addition is in possession of a portion of one of the trunk lines and is advancing up two of the passes, the Jablonica and Kirilibaba.

This threat, if not presently abolished, may end by compelling the evacuation of Lemberg, by interposing between the city and Hungary. It may repeat the Russian exploits of September, 1914, and if it does the Austro-German armies will have to retire behind the San, as they did before, and the whole position from the Gulf of Riga to the Carpathian Mountains will be gravely compromised. The Russians may equally well attempt to send armies through the mountains into Hungary. (As I correct these proofs, there is even an announcement that Cossack troops have entered Hungary over one of these passes.) The political effect of such an invasion successfully pushed would be great and might lead the Austrians to abandon Galicia again.

These are, however, remoter contingencies. We see that the Russians are still unchecked in this region and we have the testimony of German critics to the peril of the threat and to the failure of the Austrians so far to get the situation in hand. The Austrians have many admirable lines to defend themselves on, lines coördinating perfectly with the Turja-Bug-Gnila Lipa line north of the Dniester. Their situation is not yet critical; it will not be until the Russians get both Stanislau and Stryj, a good fifty miles further west. Again, no such achievement is to be expected this month, but it is toward this goal that the Russians are steadily pressing.

VII. WHAT IT MEANS

Now, briefly, this is what the Russians have accomplished: They have in seven weeks regained upwards of 15,000 square miles—almost twice as much territory as the Germans hold in France and four-fifths of the area of German conquest in the West. They claim to have taken about 300,000

prisoners. Two years ago their claims were proven accurate by American agents, whose mission it was to look after the Austrian prisoners. The Austrians and Germans dispute the claim. But it is not unreasonable and is about the same total that was made in the first Lemberg drive. The Russians claim to have taken a huge bag of guns, a vast booty of munitions and transport, and this claim is not disputed. All told, the Russian operation must have cost the Central Powers not less than half a million men in seven weeks.

Berlin on its side announces that the Russians killed have been officially estimated at 262,000. This would mean a total loss of at least a million, but the thing is a pure guess. Even if this price had been paid, however, not even the German authorities question the ability of Russia to pay it, and the achievement is plainly worth the price, for, in addition to the casualties inflicted upon Germany, it has brought Austria to a new crisis and set afloat again rumors of a separate peace. The moral effect upon the world, and most upon Germany, has been tremendous, as all Berlin comment discloses, and the lie has finally been given to the Berlin forecast of last year that Russia had been put out of the war. Russia has manifestly "come back."

One should say that there has been no disposition in Berlin to minimize the Russian achievement. Some of the best-known correspondents have been permitted to report German "amazement." German writers have announced that Russia's men, munitions, supplies in guns have seemed inexhaustible.

And so far this Russian achievement has been the great thing of the latter half of the second year of the war; in some ways it has been the biggest thing in the whole war. To it must now be added a further Russian success in the Caucasus, where the Grand Duke is showing new energy and has just taken

Baiburt and is advancing upon Erzincan. Finally, Russian troops are fighting with the French in Champagne and as I close this article new Russian detachments are reported landing in Brest. Go back a year and read what Berlin was saying of Russia at that time, with the disasters of Galicia in mind, with the realization that Warsaw was then about to fall, and we were talking about Petrograd and Moscow, and the picture is complete.

One final word: The real question is not territory, but men and guns. Russia's great contribution to her allies latterly has not been in territory conquered, but in men put out of the war and guns captured. Her attack forced Austria promptly to give over a drive into the Italian plain that was going forward prosperously. Verona, Vicenza, and perhaps Venice, were saved in Volhynia and Bukovina. The German reserves hurried to save Kovel may or may not have come from the West, but they cannot be sent to the West to meet the Anglo-French drive on that front. We hear of Austrian and German troops recalled from the Balkans. We must expect an Allied operation there against Bulgaria shortly. But will Bulgaria care long to fight single-handed against French, British, and Serbian troops and guns massed together?

There are two measures for what Russia has already done: the forecasts of Russia's immediate military future, made in Berlin last autumn, and consequences of an Anglo-French advance in France and Belgium over the same amount of ground. In the latter case seven weeks would see British and French troops approaching Liège and we should be measurably near to a peace flowing from German surrender. No one expects this now. We are only at the beginning; and Russia has but given the signal. Yet in doing it she has gone beyond her allies' hopes or her enemies' fears.





Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

DUKE OF CONNAUGHT INSPECTING REINFORCEMENTS FOR THE FAMOUS "PRINCESS PAT" REGIMENT ON THE EVE OF THEIR DEPARTURE TO FILL THE DECIMATED RANKS OF THIS REGIMENT

CANADA'S TWO YEARS OF WAR AND THEIR MEANING

BY P. T. McGRATH

[Mr. McGrath, who has frequently written for the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* on topics related to Newfoundland and Canada, is President of the Legislative Council of Newfoundland. For a quarter of a century Mr. McGrath has been the most conspicuous journalist of his country—having served as correspondent of the *London Times* and contributed to many foreign magazines and other periodicals. He is the managing director of the *St. John's Evening Herald*.—THE EDITOR.]

TWO years of war have seen Canada effecting achievements on behalf of the British Empire which not even the most far-seeing contemplated when the present world struggle began in August, 1914. She has raised an army now within measurable distance of 500,000 men. She has increased her grain acreage so as to gain the third place among the wheat-producing countries of the world, exceeded only by United States and Russia. Financially she has transformed her situation entirely, becoming a creditor instead of a debtor nation and raising a domestic loan for the first time in her history, as an earnest of her whole-hearted spirit. Industrially, she has expanded enormously and gained a position not easily described in figures, and she has evolved an entirely new pursuit, that of munition-making, which daily grows in magnitude and importance.

Economically all these factors have contributed to create a flood of prosperity similar to that enjoyed by the United States and

the effect of which is to stimulate every class and element throughout the Dominion to ever-increasing efforts in behalf of the cause to which she has dedicated herself, believing, as she does, that not only victory, but safety rests with big battalions and adequate preparedness. All these developments have been of the greatest benefit to the mother country, but surpassing them even has been the moral advantage accruing to Great Britain in the struggle through the whole-hearted support which Canada, Australia, and the other self-governing dominions are according her, and which, there is reason to believe, will result in a rearrangement of the relations of the motherland and the oversea possessions of the British Empire after the war is over.

GREATEST OF OVERSEA EXPEDITIONS

The tale of Canada's military achievements in two years can best be told by a few illuminating comparisons. Her first con-

tingent of 30,000 men, sent across the Atlantic in October, 1914, in thirty ships, was the largest individual force ever convoyed across a waste of waters in modern times, and its transfer was doubly significant in being effected with the second largest navy in the world impotently bottled up in the Kiel Canal, unable to make any effort to prevent it. By the spring of 1915 Canada had increased the force sent across the Atlantic to 60,000, or equal to the British army landed in France in the first month of the war. In slightly over a year it had grown to 90,000, somewhat more than the force (87,114) which England sent to the Crimea during the two years of that historic conflict. By the end of 1915 Canada's total oversea was 120,000, or twice the American force actually engaged in the Spanish war during the four months it lasted.

At the end of last April the Canadian enlistment exceeded 310,000—30,000 eliminated by casualties, 65,000 "at the front," 70,000 in England, 135,000 training in Canada (and most of them ready to send across as the Admiralty's dispositions admitted of transport), and 10,000 retained there for garrison and outpost duties; while enlistments continued at the rate of 5000 a week. This was a larger force than the British force in South Africa during the four years of the Boer War, or than the whole British Army when the present struggle began, and to bring it into existence called for the creation of a larger administrative machinery than the entire British "War Office" in time of peace.

Canada's original contingent was larger than that of purely British troops under Wellington's command at Waterloo; and in the great fighting of Neuve-Chapelle in April, 1915, Canada's losses were larger than those sustained by the British forces in that King-conquering struggle a century before. Creasy in his "Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World" estimates the population of the United States at the Declaration of Independence as two and a half millions; and Mulhall, in his "Dictionary of Statistics," estimates that during the five years that war lasted, 288,200 Americans fought for their country. When it is remembered that all Canada's fighting men have to be transported across the Atlantic to reach the battlefields, and that in the face of menaces like the submarine and the modern battleships, which did not exist 140 years ago, the true significance of this undertaking will be best realized.

WELL-PAID SOLDIERS

Moreover, Canada has enlisted, uniformed, equipped, trained, and transported these men at her own cost and is paying, equipping, provisioning, and munitioning them in the field in the same way, though they are fighting 3000 miles from her own shores. Then she is doing all this on a scale truly munificent. The rate of pay for the Canadians—rising upwards from \$1.10 a day for the privates—is not alone vastly above that paid by other nations in former wars, but without a parallel now, save in Australia and New Zealand. The British soldier gets about thirty cents and Continental countries pay only a fraction of that.

The dependents of Canadian soldiers also get from the state \$20 a month for wives or widowed mothers, similarly well above the allowances made by European countries, except the British, and Canada again supplements this by the generosity of the Canadian people, who have raised a Patriotic Fund for this purpose—the contributions to which, from the beginning of the war up to the end of April last, or for twenty-one months, amounted to \$10,327,000, of which over seven million dollars had been disbursed, the remainder being required for the rest of the current year; and for which another ten million dollars will be required in 1917 if the war continues. For a country so young as Canada, with comparatively few wealthy men, this is especially noteworthy.

Lastly, to care for those disabled in the struggle, or the dependents of those who fall, a pension scheme has been adopted by Canada, even more generous than that of the United States after the Civil War, giving the totally disabled private, or the widow of one killed in action \$480 a year and increasing for higher ranks, so that the outlay will involve, for every 100,000 men in the fighting line an increase in Canada's annual burdens in the future of about seven million dollars a year. In addition plans are maturing whereby the caring for the wounded and invalided through the establishing of hospitals and sanatoriums, and the fitting of them for civil employments again through the utilizing of technical schools and other agencies, will be carried out on a scale the like of which the world has never yet seen.

Of the military efficiency and fighting qualities of the Canadian soldiers it is needless to speak. After raising by the voluntary system for a war in which her interest, from some viewpoints, is only indirect, as

large a force proportionately as the Northern States raised in the Civil War until the "draft" system was put in effect, she pitted them against the exponents of militarism in the extremest form the world has ever seen, and how nobly they met the test the battlefields of Flanders will proclaim until time shall be no more. To-day every fourth adult male in Canada has enlisted or is preparing to enlist, and the patriotism of the "home-stayer" in providing thus generously for the loved ones of the bread-winners gone to war is something the world may well marvel at in these days when sentiment is supposed to give place to hard sense.

THE FINANCIAL SIDE

Of course, Canada has not faced this crisis without assuming financial burdens of a character similar to, if not as crushing as those which are bearing down the nations of Europe to almost as great an extent as the actual loss of men is doing. Canada's public debt before the war was \$336,000,000, and her Finance Minister, when making his Budget Speech in Parliament on February 15th, estimated it at \$580,000,000 for the fiscal year to end on March 31st, while he indicated that the country was faced with an increase of debt during the next fiscal year of \$250,000,000, which would make her funded obligations at the end of March, 1917, some \$830,000,000, so that it is probably no exaggeration to say that by the time the war is over and all the claims arising therefrom are met, the total public debt of Canada will be about one billion dollars. This, on a 5 per cent. interest basis, will cost \$50,000,000 a year to carry. Then, on top of that will come a large pension list, probably not less than \$20,000,000 a year, making a total for interest and pensions of \$70,000,000 per annum.

When it is considered that similar charges before the war were only \$13,000,000 and that the sum of \$70,000,000 which Canada will be called upon to bear in the future, represents over half of the revenue of the country in normal times (not including revenues from war taxes) the greatness of the load will be better realized. Her war outlay alone is five million dollars a week at present, or twice her entire expenditure for all public services in pre-war days, and, of course, the financial obligations of her military undertaking must increase in direct ratio as her armed forces grow in numbers. Yet two years ago a man who would have suggested that such things would befall in the

peaceful Dominion, the aim of which, as Sir Wilfrid Laurier had previously said, was to "avoid being drawn into the vortex of European militarism" would have been regarded as insane. But now Canada is showing the same determination as the mother country in the carrying on this war until the aim is attained which Asquith and Grey have so clearly set out.

Besides Canadian soldiers doing their part on the battlefield and Canadian statesmen providing, for the monetary problems involved, patriotism of no meaner order was exhibited by the Canadian farmers, who last year responded splendidly to an appeal by their leaders for a larger production of grain by seeking an enormously increased acreage throughout the West, and harvesting grain crops unapproached in her history. The year 1914 saw a crop failure and consequent widespread depression, notably in the West, but despite this the acreage was $37\frac{1}{4}$ millions against $33\frac{1}{2}$ millions in 1914, and $35\frac{1}{2}$ millions in 1912, the largest previously recorded, and the yield in bushels increased from $713\frac{1}{2}$ millions to 1054 millions, or over 50 per cent., which phenomenal harvest produced the amazing money value of \$789,000,000, so that, although the production from forests, mines, and fisheries remained only about normal, the total of Canada's primary production last year exceeded one billion dollars (\$1,123,169,000) for the first time in her history. The producing of this vast crop, one which materially assisted in reducing the price of the world's most important foodstuff at a time when, by all the laws appertaining to periods of international stress and strain, the rate should have materially advanced, was a gain to Canada and the Motherland which cannot easily be computed, and the feat is one which Canadian farmers plan to duplicate the present year with the like object in view.

CANADA'S INDUSTRIAL ADVANCE

The war has compelled Canada to make great manufacturing progress, likewise. Granted that for the time being war orders represent a large proportion of the manufacturing increase, it must inevitably follow that permanent manufacturing industries will be the outcome, because the factories now devoted to making munitions will at the close of hostilities be converted into works where various forms of requisites for the pursuit of peaceful avocations will be produced in great quantity. It is estimated by competent authorities that some \$600,-

000,000 worth or, roundly, about half the production of Canadian factories to-day, is represented by war orders—not alone for shells and similar material, but also for the host of other things which the effective conduct of a war entails, and this implies, first, that there has been a substantial transfer of manufacturing enterprises from other forms of work to the satisfying of war orders since these began to be placed in Canada; second, that there has been also a great increase in the number of Canadians engaged in manufacturing; and third, that there has been an enormous investment of Canadian capital employed for these purposes.

War orders have embraced many industries, such as leatherware, auto-cars, iron and steel products, lumber, milling and canning industries, and the like, and one writer has said that Canada has been making for war purposes everything from buttons to submarines, from boots to aeroplanes. Not alone has Britain been served in these respects, but her Allies as well and Nova Scotia has been producing box cars for the Siberian railways to be shipped via Vladivostok, while from Alberta have come vast supplies of flour and grain and cannery products for the use of the French armies. This will continue, of course, until the war ends, and even for some time afterwards there will be demands for such of Canada's products as will meet the needs of peace times.

But following closely in the wake of a peace treaty, there must come an industrial and economic revolution in the Dominion, a revolution induced by the fact that a nation of only eight million people has undertaken these vast and varied activities, and that it will have to face entirely new problems when the European struggle ends. The aftermath of the war will be a diminution of exports because war orders will cease, a diminution of imports because of an "unemployed" problem due to the return of hundreds of thousands of soldiers who will have to be reabsorbed into the existing industries of the country or satisfied by new industries created for them, and a readjustment by all forms of trade to a new and more permanent condition. This, however, should shortly afterwards give place to a few years of great business activity, increasing production, and an expansion of exports occasioned by the reconstruction of the vast areas of Europe desolated by the war. After that, when Europe is rebuilt and the multitudes therein settled down to years of poverty and depression, to re-create homesteads, and villages,

and towns, and cities destroyed by the war, will doubtless follow a period of world-wide reaction which will be the critical time for Canada, because she will then have to meet the contingency of a vast inrush of people from the war-swept areas of the Old World, seeking in the western hemisphere a relief from the possibility of a renewal of the horrible conditions that existed during the weary months and years of carnage.

PROBLEMS AFTER THE WAR

One speaks advisedly of the ten years following the war as a dangerous period for Canada. In the matter of her domestic problems she will have to cope with conditions unexampled in the world's history. There will be, first, the vast multitudes of men with military training, altered habits of life, disciplinary instincts and a new intelligence, who will leave their impress on every phase of the activities of the country. Already there is talk of the creating of a "Grand Army of the Dominion" like the Grand Army of the Republic which was so important a factor in the internal life of the American republic in the generation that followed the Civil War, and whether this materializes or not, few will deny that the assuming of military service will have opened new vistas of existence for thousands, and will have unfitted them for their pre-war careers, while, of course, the war, by opening up to women countless new occupations, will have so altered the ordinary avenues of employment as to compel the returned soldiers to find other means of livelihood, and the whole tendency of modern ideas is to invoke the aid of the state in such cases, to cope with problems which will not lend themselves to solution by ordinary methods.

It is true that after the American Civil War vast armies of returned soldiers created a problem for America somewhat akin to that which Canada will have before her. In America it was solved in part by the fact that the vast West had scarcely been opened up, and that the building of railways and the creating of new States helped materially to deal with it. In Canada's case the railways have, in a large measure, preceded population; and have indeed created for her a new problem already, exemplified by the fact that at the recent session of the Canadian Parliament substantial monetary aid had to be provided to help the Canadian Northern and Grand Trunk Railway systems to tide over difficulties to which the war had given rise, owing to the impossibility of their float-

ing railway securities in the British markets while hostilities continue, because the Imperial Government restricts the investments by British capitalists entirely to war bonds and other securities issued by the Imperial Government, the governments of her various overseas possessions, and the governments of the countries with which she is allied.

The present railway situation in Canada, therefore, has given force to the argument that the time has come for the nationalization of the various railway systems there. Doubtless the strongest argument for this is that most European countries have nationalized these agencies and that in Britain itself, since the war began, the state has virtually controlled the existing railroads. What may be regarded as the first step had been taken, moreover, in Canada, already, by railroad regulation—if not by actual nationalization of the railways. A railway commission, with all the powers of a Supreme Court of judicature, had been for years past in control of Canada's railways, and with highly satisfactory results, so that it seemed to many but a step from that to the actual acquisition of the lines themselves and all that this imports.

INFLUX OF NEW POPULATIONS

Canada's domestic problems will also be aggravated by the certainty that after the war there will be a vast inrush of people from the European countries that have suffered so frightfully by the present struggle seeking refuge in the vast Northwest from the contingencies of a fitful or even a lasting peace, in the war-swept areas which lately housed them. Some observers predict a doubling of Canada's population within the next twenty years as a result of this and point to what happened in America in the generation after the War of Secession to illustrate what they think will happen in Canada also. They profess to see the political equilibrium likely disturbed, and the center of political gravity, which is now Ontario, shifted to the Prairie Provinces, and passing from the hands of the English-speaking communities to the multitudes speaking strange tongues and coming from strange lands, who it is thought will do much to people the vast areas still unploughed in the fertile West and lay the sites of future cities in the wilderness.

Arising out of these new conditions will be the problems of governing, educating, and assimilating such diverse elements. Allied therewith will be the problems of production

and consumption, manufacture, and distribution, importing and exporting, and the thousand and one other matters that this will give form to, not, as ordinarily, in lesser degrees and by gradual stages, but in the larger aspect and compelling immediate attention. These may well tax the statesmanship of Canada in the coming years, and fortunate will it be for her if her public men are able to rise to the occasion.

THE DOMINION'S NEW STATUS

The chief external problem which she will have to consider is that of her future relations with the other parts of the British Empire. It is unbelievable that after a war like the present, in which the various units of the British Empire have been brought together in the fashion they have, their political relations to each other can revert to what they were before this struggle began. Necessarily at the present time, nothing but the most speculative contemplations are possible with regard to this aspect of the matter, because none can tell how long the war will last, under what conditions it will end, and what new complications will develop in the meantime. But if anything emerges from a consideration of the matter from the viewpoint of imperial consolidation, it is that the relations of Great Britain and her great Dominions must undergo a complete change at the end of this war and that Canada as the largest of the "Colonies" must blaze the trail for the new status of the motherland and those younger nations now arising in America, Africa, and the antipodes.

In perhaps one respect more than any other this problem will be rendered acute by the question of naval preparedness after the war. It may be recalled that at the end of 1912 Sir Robert Borden's Government in Canada proposed to present three dreadnoughts to the mother country as a gift, but that this policy was so vehemently opposed by the Laurier Opposition that the Ottawa Senate, with a "Liberal" majority, rejected the measure and brought this scheme to nothing. Throughout the war Canada has been, navally, a negligible quantity, depending for her protection, absolutely and altogether, on the British fleet. Such cannot, of course, continue after hostilities cease and an imperial "stock-taking" comes to be essayed. Canada's experience heretofore in naval matters indicates that she will have to depend for the maintenance of this defensive arm, in a large measure on Newfoundland, which possesses a great supply of sailorly material such as Can-

ada does not enjoy, that has already been utilized on Canada's behalf in completing the crew of the solitary warship *Niobe* which Canada maintained in the Atlantic in the early months of the struggle. A measure of naval coöperation must imply political association between Britain and Canada. This,

in turn, must mean some share in the administrative control of the common empire, which must also necessitate that the relations between the "United Kingdom" and the "Overseas Dominions" shall be reconstructed on the basis of a union of some sort, rather than the loose tie which now prevails.

AUSTRALIA'S PART IN THE GREAT WAR

BY FRED S. ALFORD

AUSTRALIA watched the breaking out of the war, early in August, 1914, with the deepest concern. There was but one opinion. England's war in the defense of martyred Belgium, in particular, and democracy and freedom generally was Australia's cause too. It was an inspiring slogan that rallied the people to the flag with remarkable unanimity. Something like 97 per cent. of the population of Australia is of British birth or direct British descent—more British than Britain herself. The remaining 3 per cent. are mostly of German birth or descent. Many of these were indiscreet, championing the cause of the "Fatherland," and were promptly interned. But it must be frankly stated that the hyphenated Australians generally have proved good colonists and a fair proportion of their numbers have shown their practical appreciation of British freedom and liberty by enlisting in the Australian army for active service against the common foe.

AUSTRALIA'S PROMPT RESPONSE

The outbreak of hostilities in Europe caught Australia in the midst of bitter general elections. Both federal houses of Parliament had been dissolved, owing to a constitutional deadlock. The ministry had been urgently recalled to Melbourne when the war clouds lowered, and were guided by public opinion. The Prime Minister, Rt. Hon. Joseph Cook, P. C., placed the commonwealth navy at the unreserved disposal of Great Britain, and offered to provide, equip, and maintain an expeditionary force of 20,000 men for dispatch to Europe. Both offers were immediately accepted by the Imperial Government.

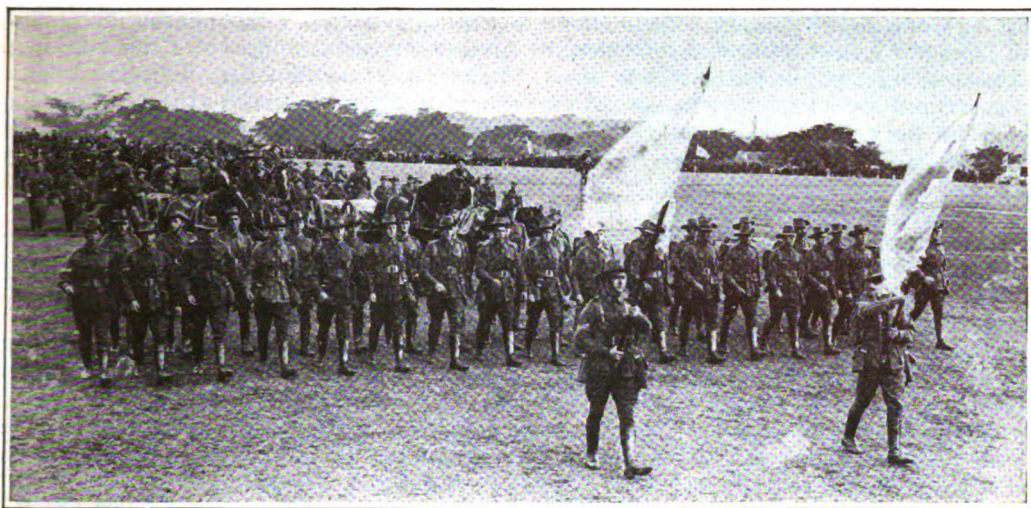
No constitutional machinery existed for the recall of a dissolved legislature, so the elections had to proceed during the most

anxious period of the war. There was some abatement of bitterness, but the campaign was continued and decided on party issues, resulting in the defeat of the Government (Liberal) at the polls on September 5, 1914. The Rt. Hon. Andrew Fisher then took office as Prime Minister of a Labor Government, and endorsed the war policy of his predecessor by pledging Australia "to the last man and the last shilling."

THE COMMONWEALTH NAVY'S PART

It says much for the efficiency of the Australian navy that it was able to put to sea without a moment's delay, ready for every emergency. Its establishment was of recent date. The Rt. Hon. Joseph Cook, then Minister for Defence, piloted the bill authorizing the construction of a local navy through Parliament in November, 1909. The program provided for a naval expenditure of \$90,000,000 over a period of eight years. The governing force behind the departure was that the time had arrived for Australia to take up the burden of the defense of the Pacific, owing to the concentration of England's naval forces in the North Sea. The order for the construction of the dreadnought H. M. A. S. *Australia* was placed in England the following month. Provision was also made for the building of cruisers, smaller vessels, and submarines. The fleet had been in commission only a few months prior to war, and was, accordingly, modern.

The *Australia* proved a golden investment. It is no secret that her 12-inch guns, in the early days of the war, on two occasions at least, saved the rich east coast of the Commonwealth and New Zealand from bombardment by the German Pacific squadron. In the meantime, Australian and New Zealand forces, escorted by the Commonwealth



AUSTRALIAN TROOPS ON PARADE IN MOORE PARK, SYDNEY, N. S. W.

fleet, made a quick conquest of Germany's Pacific possessions—New Guinea, Samoa, and the Marshall Islands. The resistance offered was not serious, and the casualties sustained were not heavy. After Von Spee had sunk the *Monmouth* and the *Good Hope* off the coast of Chile, he was driven 'round Cape Horn into the trap prepared by the brilliant Sturdee at Falkland Islands. The *Australia* was largely responsible for the movement that drove the German squadron to its summary doom.

The consummation of Australia's naval efforts was when the H. M. A. S. *Sydney* ended the career of the notorious commerce raider *Emden*, off Cocos Island, on November 9, 1914. The *Sydney* was one of a dozen cruisers escorting thirty-eight transports conveying 30,000 Australasian troops and equipment. It is recorded that the *Emden's* captain had determined to "cut loose" among such fine game, but the departure of this immense convoy had been well guarded. The *Emden*, unknowingly, had passed the convoy a few miles to the east just before dawn. The *Sydney* soon afterwards picked up the wireless call for help from Cocos and streaked off like a "slipped" greyhound after its quarry, and almost within sight of the troop-ships quickly battered and destroyed the Kaiser's most successful raider by overpowering gunnery. This feat was responsible for an outburst of extraordinary enthusiasm and gratification throughout Australia.

COMPULSORY MILITARY SERVICE

At the time that the Commonwealth had decided to establish its own navy, the military defense of Australia was not overlooked.

At the close of 1909 a scheme for the compulsory universal service was placed on the statute, and was put into operation in 1911. All youths between the ages of 14 and 18 were required to register for training unless exempted as medically unfit. Those between the ages of 14 and 16 were trained as Junior Cadets. The next two-year term is in the Senior Cadets. From 12 to 14 years, preliminary training is carried out by the public schools. At 18 years of age they pass into the Citizen Forces, where the service continues until the age of 25. Full military uniforms and equipment are supplied even to the youngest cadets. The innovation has worked smoothly and successfully, and is popular. The trainees are compelled to put in so many hours' drill per quarter, training being given two evenings every week and one afternoon every month. In addition, the Citizen Forces go into camp for field training for a fortnight every year.

At the outbreak of war the following, divided into military units, were in training under the scheme:

Junior Cadets	50,000
Senior Cadets	87,354
Citizen Forces (1894-5-6 quotas)...	51,105

FORMING THE EXPEDITIONARY FORCES

When the first call for volunteers was made, the oldest trainees were only 20 years of age. The scheme, therefore, was of too recent establishment to be of any great utility at that time. The Citizen Forces were, however, mobilized for manning forts and similar home work, and their training still continues. The first 20,000 men for the Expeditionary Force were offering within a

few days, and included a sprinkling of youthful "Citizens." Australia was fortunate in having a large supply of officers to draw from, trained specially for service in connection with the compulsory system. All those now enlisting between the ages of 18 and 22 have had five years' training.

The initial force of 20,000—the First Division—consisting of three infantry brigades and one brigade of light horse, left western Australia on November 2, 1914. They disembarked in Egypt to complete their training and incidentally to preserve order. When Turkey threw in her lot with the Teutonic powers, the seditious propaganda in Egypt by German agents was making headway, and the small, quiet English Territorials from the mills of Lancashire were treated with levity by the Egyptians. The arrival of the big Australians on the scene was opportune. They knew how to impress natives and did it in characteristically Australian fashion. The undercurrent of mutinous discontent disappeared. The men from the antipodes rapidly became popular and were styled the "wealthy Australians." The 30,000 Australasians on that first Christmas Eve drew an average of \$60 each—nearly \$2,000,000! They spent this freely and lavishly in Cairo, more than making up for the absence of the usual tourists, creating a new conception of soldiery at once strange, majestic, and fearsome, but at the same time idolized by the Egyptian population.

THE "ANZACS" AT THE DARDANELLES

The training of the men from "down under" was continued on the heavy desert sands. It was said to be the most arduous to which any body of troops were ever subjected. It was a test of endurance, and those who failed to stand it were sent back, leaving an army of physical giants fit for anything. They were prepared for a special task, and their opportunity came at the Dardanelles on the ever-memorable 25th of April, 1915, when the famous Third Brigade of Australian Infantry, commanded by Brig.-Gen. E. G. Sinclair-Maclagan, C. B., D. S. O., and with the "Terrible Tenth" Battalion, under Col. S. Price-Weir, V. C., forming the center of the first line of attack, waded ashore under a merciless fire at point-blank range and rushed the first enemy trench on the beach with the cold steel in the early dawn. Then, pausing only to throw off their packs, they stormed up the precipitous cliffs of Gaba Tepe under a stream of leaden death.

Nothing could stand against these big,

seasoned athletes. By midday they had pushed the German-officered Turks back four miles in extraordinarily difficult, broken country, capturing trench after trench, ridge after ridge, by the most furious and long-sustained bayonet drive in history. It was an unparalleled performance, and by troops under fire for the first time. Had it been possible to reinforce them, Constantinople would have fallen in a week. In the meantime, the remainder of the Australians, with the New Zealanders, were able to land. The thin line of khaki held firm, though without respite or sleep for four days, and the invaders finally became, as the Turkish counter attacks died away, securely dug in. The casualties were appalling—the Australian First Infantry Division losing 60 per cent. of its strength in four days! The success, as General Sir Ian Hamilton has stated, was due to the natural initiative and resourcefulness so characteristic of Australians, in being able to go on when they lost their officers or were out of touch with them in the broken country.

THE HEROIC STAND AT GALLIPOLI

The area held by the Australians on Gallipoli for three months was about two miles long by one mile deep, recorded for all time as "Anzac" (from the first letter in each word of "Australia-New Zealand Army Corps"). In this "few acres of hell" the Anzacs, as they are popularly known, were never free from shell fire. In the front trenches, in support, or back on the beach, the deadly shrapnel was ever searching out its victims. In no other spot in the whole theater of war have men been under fire day and night without being able to retire occasionally for rest and respite outside the zone of immediate hostilities. Weakened from summer epidemics and nerve-racked from the daily ordeal, the Anzacs were still impatient for the big move. The opportunity came in August, when several divisions of Kitchener's new army made a surprise landing at Suvla Bay, a few miles to the north of the Anzac positions. The Anzacs were to coöperate in a dashing offensive, masterly conceived, to carry the dominating positions of the Peninsula.

While the Anzacs were carrying out their part of the contract with unexampled brilliance, the new army at Suvla threw away all chance of success by the unaccountable inertia of the field commanders in failing to advance rapidly inland when the opposition was slight and time precious. It was bun-

gling with far-reaching and terribly serious consequences, as inexplicable to Sir Ian Hamilton (whose orders were to push forward at all costs) as it was to the Anzacs, who cannot understand hesitancy in such circumstances. For the second time the success—and the sacrifice—of the Anzacs was in vain.

While every unit accomplished magnificent work in that August fighting, the taking of the Lone Pine trenches, with a loss of 3000 men, is the finest thing yet recorded even in this war of great deeds. The honor belongs to the First Brigade of Australian infantry. Charging across the intervening ground, swept with a hurricane of lead, hacking their way through deadly entanglements, the survivors reached the enemy position. The trenches were roofed over with heavy logs. Finding or making openings, the intrepid Anzacs plunged straight in amongst the waiting Turks. Then followed the most bloody and terrible conflict underground conceivable. Choking with acid fumes of bursting bombs, smothered in blood from the vicious stabbing of cold steel, the fight waged through the network of trenches, over the barriers of mangled dead and dying soldiers, without abatement for fifty hours. Physical endurance and deadly tenacity won, in spite of overwhelming odds, and the Anzacs remained sole possessors of Lone Pine.

THE WITHDRAWAL FROM THE DARDANELLES

With the entry of Bulgaria into the war on the side of the Central Powers, withdrawal from Gallipoli was inevitable. The British Government hesitated to sanction this, fearing the effect it might have on the Australian people. The Commonwealth was approached, and the Prime Minister, Rt. Hon. W. M. Hughes, P. C., LL.B. (who succeeded Mr. Fisher in October, 1915), replied that Australia would continue to be guided by the imperial authorities. He offered to create three new divisions of infantry and supply reinforcements of 16,000 per month, bringing Australia's contribution to 300,000 by the middle of 1916. This was unanimously endorsed by public opinion. Australia did feel bitterly the failure of the Dardanelles operations, when victory, practically assured by superhuman efforts of the troops, was lost by blundering of the British War Office. The evacuation was a masterpiece. Fraught with natural difficulties threatening annihilation of the rearguard, every living soul (only four were wounded) melted silently away, and the last boat had pulled out from Anzac Beach before the

Turks were aware, by the burning of abandoned stores, that the Anzacs had left. The men felt keenly leaving the positions so dearly won.

The troops were reorganized in Egypt, and the present strength of the Australian army, including the three new divisions, has been brought up to sixty-eight battalions of infantry (each 1000 rifles) and ten regiments of light horse. In addition, there is the full complement of army service, army medical corps, besides a flying corps and a number of artillery brigades, etc. Two more divisions of infantry are under contemplation. The New Zealand army, associating with the Australian, is about one-third the size of the latter—all under the command of General Sir W. Birdwood, who is the idol of his men and familiarly known as "Birdie."

CHARACTER OF THE AUSTRALIAN SOLDIER

Critics say there is no discipline in an Australian army. From the continental standpoint there is not. Australians obey orders promptly and intelligently, but retain their individuality. General Birdwood delights in relating experiences characteristic of the men of Anzac. An English colonel of the old school once complained that the Australians did not show him proper respect. "That is nothing," replied General Birdwood; "they seldom salute me either. One day, when on the rounds of inspection, I passed a burly Queenslander on sentry duty who stared at me with nonchalant interest without saluting. Just then a shell came screaming over, and the Queenslander, turning quickly to me, cried warningly: 'Duck your blamed head, Birdie!'" "And what did you do?" inquired the Colonel, aghast, anticipating an account of a summary court-martial. "Why, I ducked my blamed head, of course," was the smiling reply of the distinguished General.

Glorious deeds of individual bravery and thrilling episodes at Anzac would fill volumes, but one thing stands out alone: that was the fortitude and cheerfulness of wounded Anzacs. They died smiling, often with the words of their war-song on their lips, "Australia will be there." Famous surgeons and war correspondents with experience of other fronts met nothing like it before. In an inspiring poem, London *Punch* gave tribute to the Anzacs as "the bravest thing God ever made." The Australian is described by competent judges as the finest soldier in the world. Clean-cut, of magnificent physique, extraordinary endurance, and

ever cool and resourceful, he is in a class by himself. He is grim and determined in combat and a big, merry, overgrown boy in relaxation, with a fine capacity for enjoying the best of life.

In April last the first of the Anzac army landed in France as unobtrusively as the first English expeditionary force, twenty months earlier. They proceeded immediately to the front, and it is a great compliment to their prowess that they took over one of the most difficult sectors of the whole Western front. Their fine physique and merry dispositions won the hearts of the French immediately.

The casualties of the Australians on Gallipoli totaled 41,524, of whom 6837 were killed; 1838 are missing (all considered killed), while only 61 are prisoners of war. The balance were either wounded or ill. These casualties were mostly confined to the First Division, who bore the brunt of the work. The New Zealand losses were in the same proportion. Casualty lists are now coming through of the operations in France, but are not heavy yet.

A STEADY STREAM OF RECRUITS

After the dispatch of the first expeditionary force, other contingents were raised and left at intervals. The forces are being voluntarily recruited, and up to the middle of May 260,000 men had been accepted for active service abroad. Approximately 200,000 have been dispatched to the front. The remaining 60,000 men are in camp in various stages of preparation for service abroad. The medical examination is unusually strict, and nearly another 100,000 men have been rejected for slight defects. Owing to the great distance from the field of operations and the heavy cost of maintenance, it was considered unwise to relax the medical test, as men who break down under the strain of modern warfare are a burden. Besides those enlisted for active service, a large number of men, mostly medical "rejects," are retained for home service, on a war footing, for camp and detail work. In including the contributions to the navy, Australia is maintaining an active force of approximately 300,000 men at present, but which is steadily growing all the time. No other dominion, proportionately, has done so much.

As the commitments for reinforcements are now so large, and as public opinion demands that the supreme effort should be made to bring the war to an early termination, the agitation for the immediate adoption of general compulsion is widespread and

overwhelming. It illustrates Australia's grim determination to see the business through. While the majority of the members of the House of Representatives favor compulsion, the extremists of the Labor Party are opposing it. The Labor Government, in power by a small majority, is endeavoring to avoid a change in recruiting policy recommended by the Commonwealth War Council until the return of Prime Minister Hughes from Europe.

Mr. Hughes is a man of extraordinary force of character, who dominates his militant supporters by his masterful personality. He freed Australian metals from German control, eliminated shareholders of German birth from Australian companies, and has forced his views on post-war trade problems on the British Government so strongly that he was asked to represent the Empire at the Economic Conference in Paris in June. Mr. Hughes electrified Great Britain by his fervid eloquence and advocacy of a more vigorous prosecution of the war and was offered a seat in the British Cabinet. If the Prime Minister demands compulsion after his return to Australia, then it will be adopted. Meanwhile, special efforts will be made to accelerate enlistments. New Zealand, however, has introduced a bill into Parliament for compulsion, and the other dominions are not likely to lag behind this lead.

AUSTRALIA PAYS HER OWN WAR BILL

The sacrifice to Australia is no small one. She is bearing the whole of the cost of her military efforts. The nature of this burden may be judged by the fact that the Australian soldier is the highest paid in the world, and probably the best equipped. A private draws \$10.50 per week, a corporal \$17.50, a lieutenant \$35, and higher ranks in proportion. Very liberal provision is also made for dependents of fallen soldiers, and for soldiers incapacitated. The pension to a widow or other dependents is half the rate of pay the soldier was drawing, with extra for each child under sixteen. The scale of pensions to permanently disabled soldiers is being increased 50 per cent. and will in special cases be \$10 per week for a private, but generally \$7.10.

The whole of the soldier's equipment, including rifles and small-arms ammunition, is manufactured locally. Artillery, field requirements, and land transport is mostly supplied by England. For the transportation of troops the Commonwealth has a fleet of ninety vessels in constant service. Up to the

end of June, 1916, Australia's participation in the war is estimated at \$375,000,000 in "local" expenditure alone. The Treasurer has stated that no returns are available yet of the expenditure incurred by the Imperial Government in maintaining and equipping Australian forces at the front, where necessary. This will be adjusted and debited to Australia later.

Much of the war expenditure is being met by local loans. In September, 1915, the first war loan of \$25,000,000, at 4½ per cent. interest, was submitted to the people, and \$70,000,000 was subscribed. In January, 1916, the second loan of \$50,000,000 was submitted, and \$105,000,000 was subscribed. Previously to this the banks advanced the Government \$50,000,000 until after the war. The ready response to the war loans is a clear indication of the people's confidence in victory.

INDUSTRIAL CONDITIONS SOUND

The industrial position in Australia is very satisfactory. There is no unemployment, no distress, and therefore no relief work. The war census, taken in 1915 to determine the country's resources, showed that the wealth of Australia was \$5,000,000,000 and the annual income \$1,000,000,000. Savings-bank deposits were the highest in the world per head of population, and show no decline. The postal revenue has increased and governmental finances generally are in a sound position. The states have been spending millions of British capital on great reproductive works. It is feared, however, as a result of a protracted war, that there will be a limitation to borrowing, and there is an undercurrent of uneasiness in respect to the economic aftermath should Europe be involved in great financial crises.

Australia is remarkable for its recuperative qualities. It experienced the worst drought for fifty years in 1914-5, depleting stock to a large extent, and necessitating the importation of wheat and fodder. Last year, by way of contrast, was the best season ever known, the wheat yield totaling 190,000,000

bushels, or 50 per cent. in excess of the previous best crop.

To assist the Allied cause further, munition committees have been formed in each of the states, for the purpose of directing the manufacture of shells in large quantities, with satisfactory results. The Commonwealth explosive factory has been enlarged, and the Government, besides providing for its own needs, is also supplying the cordite requirements of two other dominions.

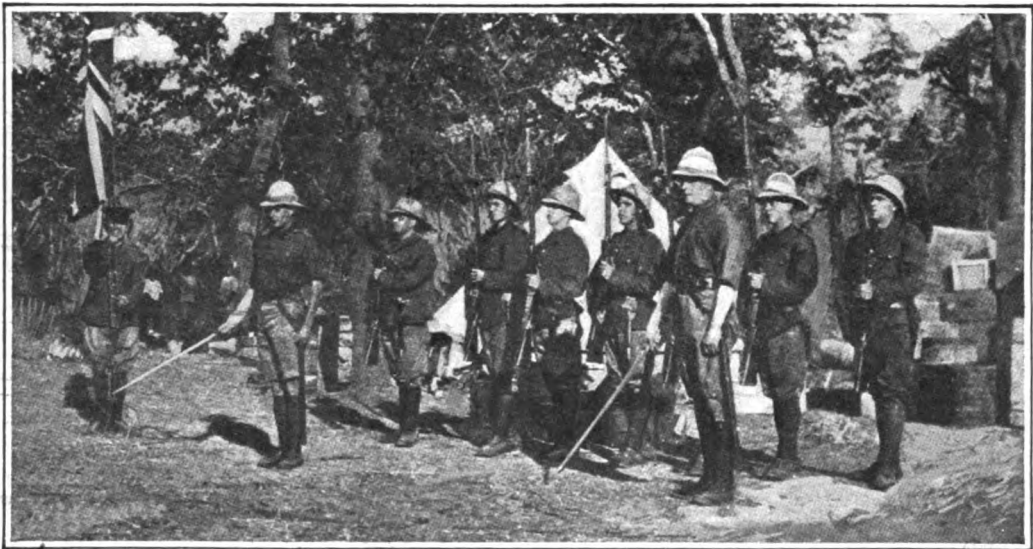
The finest example of Australia's sense of responsibility in matters of defense was in the successful launching last year of three destroyers and the cruiser *Brisbane*, a sister ship to the famous *Sydney*, constructed in the Commonwealth Naval Dockyard in Sydney Harbor, N. S. W. This was the first large warship built in any of the dominions. Other keels have been laid down. A portion of the Australian navy is in the North Sea fleet, the balance on escort duty. All have done fine work.

HEAVY SUBSCRIPTIONS TO CHARITABLE FUNDS

The people's part in the war is remarkable for its practical enthusiasm, more particularly in view of the disastrous drought of 1914. The public have subscribed, up to May, 1916, nearly \$20,000,000 in donations to the various patriotic funds. About half of this amount is for the wounded soldiers, the balance being devoted to Belgian relief and Red Cross funds. Hundreds of thousands of dollars' worth of wheat, beef, mutton, and other goods have been collected for the Belgians, and innumerable gifts and motor ambulances for the Red Cross.

Australia's part in the Great War may not be large compared with the colossal efforts involved in all Europe. But added to the more or less equal efforts of New Zealand, Canada, South Africa, and India, and combined with the great energy of Great Britain, the British Empire, working unitedly in one direction, must exert a powerful and overwhelming influence on the successful course and duration of the war.





A DETACHMENT OF BRITISH FORCES IN CAMP IN EAST AFRICA

GERMAN EAST AFRICA

BY JAMES B. MACDONALD

CUT off from the world for nearly two years and assailed on all sides by enemies, the Germans in East Africa have made a gallant fight. They are defending a country almost twice the size of Germany itself, densely populated by natives who only a few years ago tried to drive them into the sea. Out of this unpromising material they have drilled and armed a large native army.

The war opened with British cruisers bombarding the wireless station and government buildings at Dar-es-Salaam. A German cruiser returned the call, and sank a small British war vessel dismantled in Zanzibar harbor. Some skirmishing on land took place on the northern frontier. Troops from the German military station, at Moshi occupied Taveta, and held it until recently. They also threatened Mombasa, the seaport and terminus of the British Uganda Railway; and, to hold them in check, Indian troops were sent from Egypt. So matters remained on this front all during 1915.

The British, having no troops available for an invasion, had to content themselves with declaring a blockade of the whole coast. In July of that year their monitors destroyed the German cruiser *Königsberg*, which had taken refuge up the Rufiji River, but her guns and crew had previously been removed to assist in the defense of the colony.

During the same month, a German force

invaded Nyassaland—a British crown colony sparsely populated by missionaries and coffee planters—and militia had to be sent from South Africa to repel them.

On Lake Tanganyika two German gunboats dominated the shipping, and were facetiously known as the "Dreadnoughts of the Lake." To combat them the British shipped two armed motorboats from England and railed them over the South African and Rhodesian railways to the point furthest north, from whence they were transhipped on traction wagons 166 miles through the wilds of northern Rhodesia until they reached the Lualaba River. Here they were commissioned and taken over by twenty-eight officers and men sent by the Admiralty. On Christmas last, they ran their trial trip on the lake, and next day one of the German gunboats got a shock when she met them unexpectedly without her escort. Some weeks later, the adventurers chased and sank the other.

COMPLETELY HEMMED IN BY ENEMIES

On March 9 of the present year, Germany declared war on Portugal, and the colony of Mozambique immediately became a party to the war in Africa. The Portuguese promptly seized Kionga, on the coast, and the strip of land on the south side of the Rovuma River, which the Germans had

dispossessed them of in 1894. This front, however, is inconvenient to both combatants, besides being inhabited by unconquered natives hostile to all white men.

Meanwhile, the Belgians and the British had organized simultaneous invasions from the north, west, and south. On the southern front, between Lake Tanganyika and Lake Nyassa, a force of Rhodesians and Transvaalers under Brigadier-General Northey entered the German colony and captured Neu Langenberg, with large quantities of ammunition and stores. Afterwards the important town of Bismarckburg, at the foot of Lake Tanganyika, was occupied.

The Belgians entered the province of Ruanda in two columns, under the command of General Tombeur, from either end of Lake Kivu and supported by their gunboats. After several skirmishes, the German forces retreated in the direction of Lake Victoria Nyanza before the converging columns. The Belgians have since occupied Kigali, the principal town in the province.

GENERAL SMUTS, BOER, THE BRITISH COMMANDER

The main advance, however, has come from the north—from British East Africa, where a composite force of some 25,000 British, Colonial, and Indian troops was brought together under the command of General Jan Christian Smuts. Fifteen years ago, General Smuts headed a Boer commando in a raid through Cape Colony, and last year led the southern army through German West Africa. He has had a wonderful career. Educated in Cape Colony, he passed through Cambridge University in England and qualified as a barrister in London. At twenty-eight years of age he was attorney-general of the Transvaal Republic under President Kruger and took a prominent part during those historic times. Since Louis Botha became Premier of the Transvaal, and afterwards of South Africa, Smuts has been the minister to whom was assigned, as a matter of course, the most difficult and contentious portfolio, and on one occasion he assumed three simultaneously. Botha without Smuts would be greatly handicapped; yet the latter has not the complete confidence of his own people, although both they and the British element recognize that he is the ablest statesman in the country. He is a clever man, born in South Africa in the wrong generation. In any other country, he would have made his mark even more quickly.

On assuming command at Nairobi, the



JAN CHRISTIAN SMUTS, BOER LEADER OF THE
BRITISH FORCES AGAINST THE GERMANS

first move of General Smuts was to push a reconnaissance in force towards the southeast slopes of Mount Kilimanjaro, to test the strength of the German position. Finding them in force there, he dispatched mounted and other troops with motor transports, machine guns, and a mountain battery, under Major-General Stewart, through Longido, to encircle the northern end of the mountain and attack Moshi from the west while he drove at it in a frontal attack. The Germans made a good fight in the dense woods, where artillery and bombs were useless, but they were unprepared for an attack in their rear, and left 380 dead and many prisoners. Some of their forces retired along the Tanga railway, while the main body retreated south to contest further General Smuts's advance toward Kilimatinde, the capital of the colony.

Military operations in these parts are conducted under difficulties—where the rains are tropical, crocodiles infest the rivers, wild elephants and rhinoceros charge the motor transport, giraffes object to the telephone wires, baboons protest against the shrapnel, and lions reconnoitre the outlying patrols. As one Tommy put it: "This is a blooming zoo—without the cages."

Railway men from South Africa rapidly laid down rails linking up the Uganda railway at Taveta with the German terminus at Moshi. A force was detached to follow the latter line to the sea at Tanga and open up a new shipping base. They slowly captured station after station until they reached and occupied Tanga itself last month.

This left General Smuts free to push ahead with the main column across country to Kilimatinde, the seat of the German colonial government, which is on the main railway line midway between Daar-es-Salaam and Ujiji. After seizing Arusha, where important caravan routes meet, he pushed on to Köthersheim and Salanga.

Kondoa Irangi, about seventy-five miles from the main railway, was occupied by General Van Deventer on April 19, after a stiff fight. The Germans retired towards Kilimatinde, but, getting heavy reinforcements, returned to the attack under the personal direction of General Von Lettow-Vorbeck, commander of the German imperial troops in the colony. Following a heavy bombardment, the attack was continued during the 9th, 10th, and 11th of May, but was repulsed with heavy losses.

When the British forces gather in overwhelming numbers for the final advance on the railway, the fate of the colony will be determined; but the natives will have to be subdued and disarmed before a white man may walk through the country.



GENERAL SMUTS IN THE FIELD, DIRECTING OPERATIONS AGAINST THE GERMANS

(The automobile gun and motorcycles are typical of the modern equipment used by the British to overcome great natural obstacles in a country where there are but two railroads and practically no highways)

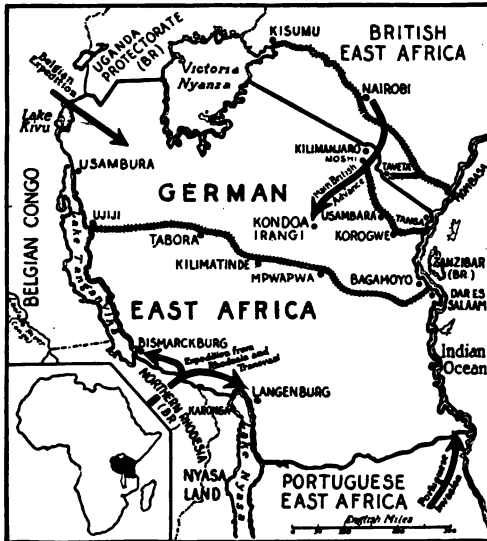
THE GERMAN COLONY

German East Africa is in extent about 384,000 square miles, and has now been under German rule for twenty-five years.

During that period the Germans built the railway from Dar-es-Salaam, on the coast, to Ujiji, on Lake Tanganyika, which bisects the colony; and a short line near the British East African boundary from Tanga, on the coast, to Moshi. The latter is opposite the British town of Taveta, where there is a branch railway connecting with the trunk line through British East Africa. It is in this neighborhood that the colonial armies of Britain and Germany began to contend with each other.

A little beyond Moshi there is a Boer colony of "bitter-enders," who emigrated here after the British annexed the Transvaal and Orange Free State. So far as we know, this is the only bona-fide white settlement in the colony, apart from the government officials, traders, military, and missionaries. This, however, is not to be wondered at because the country is climatically unsuited to Europeans, or their domestic animals, except in favored parts near the British border. It is otherwise in the higher altitude and more fertile soil of the highlands of British East Africa.

The colony is unfortunate in having all "the plagues of Egypt" and many more of its



GERMAN EAST AFRICA

(The scene of the recent African fighting, showing the various directions [indicated by arrows] by which the Allied forces have been marching against the Germans. The small insert map shows the relation of the colony to the rest of the continent)

own. It is the home of rinderpest, which devastated the cattle of South Africa until a preventative was found in arsenical dipping, which destroys the ticks or parasites which cause the trouble. It is the home of sleeping sickness, which carries off thousands of natives in this and the neighboring Congo Free State. It is the home of the tsetse fly, whose puncture is death to the horse or mule. Even donkeys die mysteriously. Apart from the usual malarial fever and occasional dysentery, Europeans who live long in the country are liable to get the dreaded blackwater fever.

In brief, tropical East Africa is only a shade less deadly than tropical West Africa; but the human seems to be able to adapt himself to any climatic conditions—for a time.

So far no payable minerals in any quantity have been found; and transportation away from either of the two railways is limited to human beasts of burden.

Dar-es-Salaam is the principal town and seaport of German East Africa. It is laid out in one long row of whitewashed stucco houses along the shore of the bay. Like Lorenzo Marques (Delagoa Bay), all business is transacted in the early morning and late afternoon, owing to the excessive moist heat.

As a government undertaking, the colony has never paid, although it is Germany's largest and most important one. Even with changed ownership, it holds out no prospect of developing on other lines than those of an important native trading center and a magnificent game preserve.

EARLY CENTRAL AFRICAN DISCOVERIES

In 1849, Dr. Livingstone, starting from South Africa, crossed the Kalihari desert and came upon Lake Ugami; and between 1851 and 1856 he crossed the continent from the west coast to the east and discovered the Upper Zambezi river and the now far-famed Victoria Falls.

Burton and Speke, in 1858, discovered Lake Tanganyika, some 400 miles long; and Speke sighted Lake Victoria Nyanza, the largest body of fresh water in Africa. Accompanied by Grant, Speke returned in 1862

and following the river which flowed out of Lake Victoria Nyanza down to Egypt proved it to be the Nile.

Sir Samuel Baker, in 1864, discovered Lake Albert Nyanza on another headwater of the Nile, and sighted the "blue mountains" which Stanley was later to locate in 1888 as the snowy peaks of Ruwenzori. The Duke of the Abruzzi, now in command of the Italian Fleet in the Adriatic, explored these mountains in 1906 and identified them as "the Mountains of the Moon" of Ptolemy—"the Egypt nurtured in the Snow" of Æschylus—and "the Mountain of Silver," the source of the Nile, of Aristotle.

In 1866, Dr. Livingstone started on the journey from which he never returned, and in the course of his wanderings discovered Lake Mweru, Lake Bangwenlu, and the upper reaches of the Congo River. The last mentioned is locally known as the Lualaba River, and Livingstone died in the belief that it was one of the headwaters of the Nile. It remained for Stanley, at a later period, to follow it to the sea and prove it to be the Congo.

In the meantime, Dr. Livingstone was lost to the world and Stanley was sent to find him.

Starting from Bagamoyo, on the mainland opposite Zanzibar, Stanley, in February, 1871, struck across country as direct as possible for Ujiji, on Lake Tanganyika. There he found Livingstone, and returned with the news of the latter's discoveries.

The route taken by Stanley in his plucky and adventurous journey is indicated to-day by the track of the principal railway in German East Africa. The latter, however, starts, not from Bagamoyo, but from the seaport of Dar-es-Salaam, a few miles farther south.

HOW GERMAN EAST AFRICA WAS ACQUIRED

Stanley's discoveries, and the forming of the Congo State by Leopold II, King of the Belgians, brought about the partition of the unoccupied areas of Africa by the Great Powers.

Germany was the last to enter the field of colonial enterprise, but not the least eager.

The northern boundary of Portuguese East Africa had been recognized by Germany



A MASAI WARRIOR WITH HIS FIGHTING GEAR
(A type of the natives in the German colony)

in 1866, and by Britain in 1891, as defined by the Rovuma river. To the north stretched a coast line of about 1000 miles, subject to the authority of the Sultan of Zanzibar, whose independence had been recognized by Britain and France in 1862.

Dr. Karl Peters, a German subject, landed on the mainland opposite Zanzibar in 1884 and proceeded to make "treaties" with the native chiefs on behalf of the German Colonization Society.

In 1885, the British ambassador in Berlin communicated to Prince Bismarck, the German Chancellor, the following despatch from his government:

The supposition that Her Majesty's Government have no intention of opposing the German scheme of colonization in the neighborhood of Zanzibar is absolutely correct.

Her Majesty's Government, on the contrary, view with favor these schemes, the realization of which will entail the civilization of large tracts over which hitherto no European influence has been exercised, the coöperation of Germany with Great Britain in the work of suppression of the slave gangs, and the encouragement of the efforts of the Sultan both in the extinction of the slave trade and in the commercial development of his dominions.

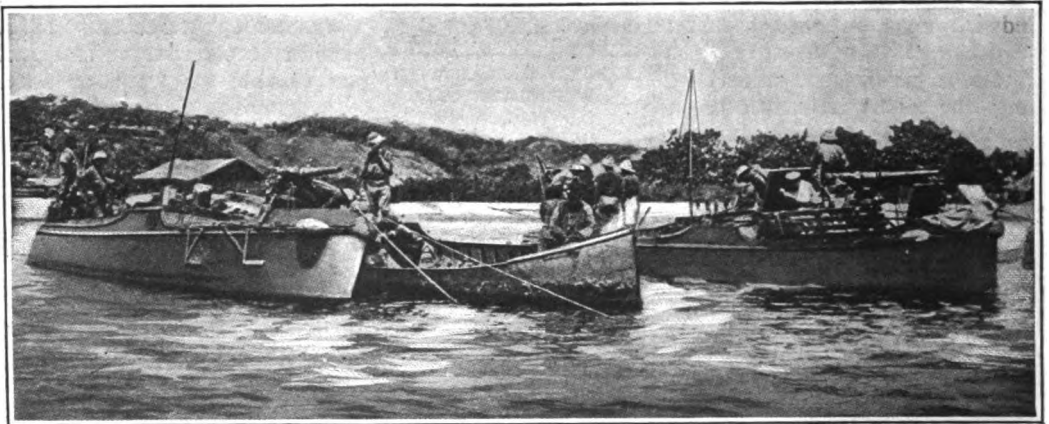
Bismarck contemplated initiating his colonial ventures tentatively on the lines of the earlier British chartered companies, such as "The East India Company" and "The Governor and Company of Adventurers of

England trading with Hudson Bay" (commonly called the Hudson Bay Company). He intended that they should be administered by enterprising merchants, and that the obligations of the Imperial Government should be limited to protecting them against foreign interference.

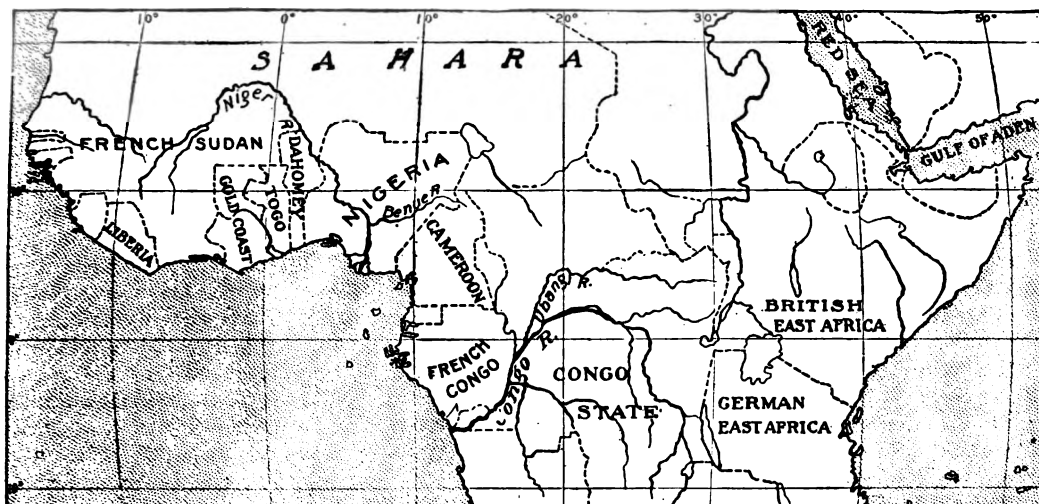
In pursuance of these objects, the Deutsche-öst-Africa Gesellschaft was formed with a capital of \$1,000,000 to take over the "treaty" rights of Dr. Peters. A revolt of the slave-trading Arabs in 1888 attained such dimensions that the company's forces were driven back to the coast and held only the port of Dar-es-Salaam.

The Imperial Government thereupon intervened to suppress the rising, and latterly took over the administration of the whole country.

Meanwhile, in 1884, Sir Harry Johnston had concluded "treaties" with the Chief of Taveta, and this led to the formation of the Imperial British East Africa Company. After appointing a joint boundary commission, the governments of Britain and Germany came together on various occasions and, with the friendly aid of France, settled all differences by the creation of German East Africa, British East Africa, and British Uganda in 1890. As part of the deal, Britain ceded Heligoland, in the North Sea, to Germany, and acquired dominion over the Island of Zanzibar.



THE TWO SMALL POWER BOATS, "MIMI" AND "TOU-TOU," WITH GUNS MOUNTED, WHICH GAINED THE COMMAND OF LAKE TANGANYIKA FOR THE UNION FORCES



MAP SHOWING THE NIGER AND CONGO RIVER SYSTEMS

MYSTERY OF THE NIGER RIVER

BY CYRUS C. ADAMS

ONE hundred years ago this July Captain J. K. Tuckey and twenty of his crew died of fever among the rapids of the lower Congo, about 130 miles above the mouth of the river. Half of the party were dead a few weeks after their little vessel, *Congo*, steamed into the river. Such a tragedy could not occur in Africa to-day. Tuckey did not know, as we do, that the virulent type of malaria, which ruined his enterprise, is caused by the sting of a certain mosquito; and that the disease cannot occur if this pest is kept from breeding or the human body is protected against it.

It is one of the recent triumphs of science that many problems of tropical hygiene are already solved. Nearly 3000 whites are now living in the Congo basin; and the death rate among them, for some years, has been only about twenty per thousand a year. Tuckey wrote, before the calamity came, that the climate was hot but seemed to him salubrious.

We need only mention what Captain Tuckey was trying to do to demonstrate how dense, a century ago, was our ignorance of African geography. Nobody had found where the Niger River reached the sea; and as the mystery grew the theory became popular that the Congo, or Zaire River, was the lower part of the Niger. The most im-

pressive fact known about the Congo was that the majestic flood it poured into the Atlantic freshened the sea several miles from the shore; it certainly was a great river. But Mungo Park had proven that the Niger also was a great river when he floated down its upper and middle course; and as no one had been able to find where the Niger reached the sea, it is not very strange that geographers, a century ago, hitched it up with the Congo.

Mungo Park, the splendid and intrepid young Scotchman who inaugurated the modern era of African exploration, was largely responsible for the theory that the Congo might be the outlet of the Niger. He was enthusiastic over the idea. He wrote that, if the theory turned out to be true, the fact, in a commercial sense, would be second in importance only to the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope. "From a geographical point of view," he added, "it is certainly the greatest discovery that remains to be made in the world."

Great men of science sometimes sit comfortably in their studies at home and work out physical or other problems whose solution in the field costs investigators years of toil and hardship. In this way, it is said, Dr. Gauss, of the University of Göttingen, determined the position of the North Mag-

netic Pole in the region where James Ross found this rather elusive object. The German geographer, Reichard, became interested in the problem of the Niger; and, gathering all data available with regard to the waters in the equatorial regions of West Africa, he came to the conclusion that the Niger must find its way to the ocean through the streams of a delta; and that this delta was probably on the coast of the Bight of Benin where a large number of small streams were known to enter the Atlantic.

The eminent geographer hit the nail on the head. His theory told the truth. The western branches of the delta empty into the Bight of Benin; the eastern branches into the adjoining Bight of Biafra. The problem was solved in an armchair; but the English gentlemen who, at that time, were organizing the Tuckey expedition, laughed to scorn the German hypothesis, declared that Reichard's deductions were "entitled to very little attention" and that his data were "wholly gratuitous."

James McQueen was another armchair investigator, but the books he read were hundreds of black slaves taken to the West Indies from the Niger River region. He had read Mungo Park's fascinating story of his journey down the Niger for hundreds of miles and thought it very strange that no explorer had ever found where the great river reached the sea. McQueen began to question every native of the lower Niger he could find; and kept accumulating this testimony for five years before he was ready to publish his results. In 1821, when he had solved the puzzle to his satisfaction, he issued a book in which he announced as a fact, and not as a theory, that the Niger reached the sea through a wide-spreading delta in the region of the "Oil Rivers." As a fact, the delta front is exactly where McQueen said it was. The Oil Rivers are the delta streams of the Niger.

McQueen's book made more fun for the learned geographers than any comic newspaper. The idea that an obscure trader in the West Indies should dream that his confabs with ignorant slaves had solved the Niger mystery was a most amusing joke. McQueen lived to see the day when his joke was recognized as a solemn geographical fact. It was from the West Indies also that McQueen sent to Europe the first information of the great Benue tributary of the Niger which, with the Niger delta, is now known to provide a fine, uninterrupted

waterway from the sea for about 1000 miles into the continent. So much cannot be said of any other river in Africa.

The Niger is the third greatest river in Africa and the eleventh in rank in the world. How did it happen that for generations no one knew the place and the manner of its junction with the Atlantic? The problem was really a hard nut to crack, though with our present methods of African exploration and our knowledge of how to live in the deadly climate of the delta, the mystery would probably have been solved in a few months. The Niger delta, one of the largest in the world, stretches 250 miles along the coast. Most of its streams are small; and, skirting the coast, one can hardly observe them, so completely are they hidden in the dense region of mangrove swamps. Explorers soon found that they might struggle for weeks up a stream only to prove it a blind alley; for a peculiarity of the Niger is that not a few independent rivers form between the delta branches and have no connection with the Niger itself. Most of the delta is a network, difficult to enter or to retreat from.

All nature is hideous there. The brown waters lazily coursing; the evil odors of the slime and ooze; the repulsive animal life from crocodiles to pythons, lurking in the shadow for their prey; and a choice collection of insect plagues including the anopheles mosquito with its poisonous sting. These terrible conditions, persisting for about forty miles inland, are then succeeded by solid earth, noble trees and sweet air; but the swamp region of the lower delta is one of the most forbidding parts of Africa.

Richard Lander, at last, in 1830, floating down the Niger, was taken by natives into the Nun branch of the delta and descended it to the sea. The Niger problem was solved. For many years, the Nun branch was the means of commercial communication with the river; but some time ago a sandbar forming at the Nun mouth made entrance difficult for ships; and a good route to the Niger has now been developed through the Forcados branch of the delta.

But the terror of the delta persisted till the white man learned how to fight the malignant agencies of tropical diseases.

England gave the Niger a wide berth till after 1850. It was thought to be a plague-stricken region from which no good would ever come. Its terrors have fled to-day before the advance in knowledge. Large vessels ascend the Forcados branch, carrying

commerce to and from the far interior of Africa; and Nigeria, a coming empire of industry with its great cattle, cotton, tin mines, and other resources, is joined to the sea both by rail and river.

A hundred years ago our fathers thought of the Congo only as the outlet of the Niger. We know now that it is the second greatest river system in the world. Most of its basin has the advantage of standing from 1500 to 2000 feet above the sea, while the head of navigation on the Amazon and most of its tributaries is usually not over 300-400 feet above sea-level. The result is that,

while the Congo and the Amazon have exactly similar relations to the Equator, the Congo has more rapid movement in its waters, more life and inspiration in its air. Draining an area nearly half as large as the United States, the Congo's 6000 miles of waterways, supplemented here and there by railroads, are bringing its 12,000,000 native population into closer touch with the better influences of white occupancy. No primitive tropical land seems now to have a brighter and more hopeful outlook than the Belgian Colony of the Congo, when peace shall come again.

THE SKYWARD CAREER OF ALL PRICES

BY J. GEORGE FREDERICK

TWO big struggles seem to be going on in the world—the clash of armies and the clash of *prices*. The result of the first struggle is to kill off men, and the result of the second struggle is to kill off old standards of value—to speed prices beyond anything ever known in the world before.

It will be remembered that before the Civil War the level of prices was something like 100 per cent. lower than the permanent level achieved by prices after the war. Laborers were plentiful at as low as 50 cents a day, and food and materials were in proportion. War never fails to boost prices, and the greater the war the greater the boost. This being the world's greatest war, this present boost is absolutely unprecedented.

Price is evidently the delicate balancing needle on which the economic world pivots, and like a seismograph dial it is registering world disturbance at points thousands of miles away. The entire working world is in a position of worry over materials and production, with only a passing thought about selling. It is no longer a question of disposal of output, but of securing materials, labor, and equipment; and adjusting to price conditions.

In such a situation only one result is sure—that prices will continue to mount until the great suction of demand is reduced. The demand is twisted and tangled—that is one great difficulty. There is now terrific, unlimited drain on certain chemicals, for in-

tance. No amount of clever salesmanship could have sold more than usual three years ago, but to-day they are almost literally worth their weight in gold. Luxuries, too, paradoxical as it may seem, are going upward in price because of increased demand, even in Berlin, the beleaguered! It is authoritatively reported that more women are wearing silk in Germany than ever before; and at a recent sale some old paintings brought record prices. As for pearls of certain high grades—they have simply ceased to exist everywhere! They are not any more to be had at any price!

CONTRASTING NEW YORK, LONDON, AND BERLIN

But it is not the price of pearls that is worrying the world. The world of business is worrying about raw material and labor, and the householder is worrying about food. The rise in food values the world over is graphically shown in Fig. 1, contrasting prices for certain staples in the world's three principal cities, New York, London and Berlin. The comparison of all foods shows that whereas New York City has suffered a 20 per cent. increase, London has suffered to the extent of 55 per cent. and Berlin 100 per cent. This gives a general measure of difference between the price-pressure in different parts of the war-tortured globe. An interesting sidelight is that price-pressure for goods is felt about 5 to 10 per cent. stronger in cities of over 50,000

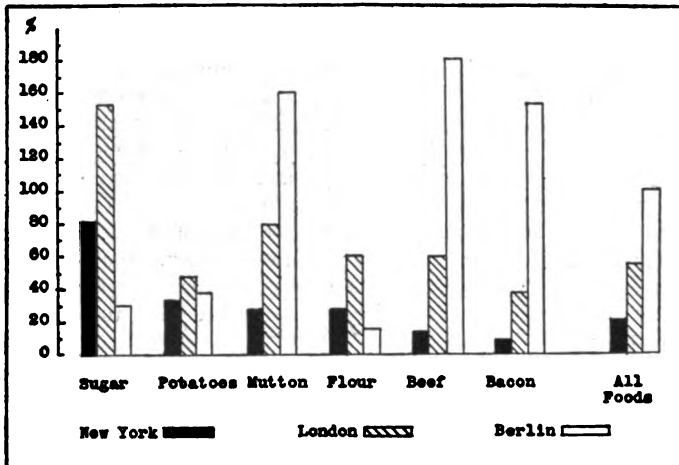


FIGURE 1—INCREASE OF FOOD PRICES SINCE JULY 1, 1914, IN THREE WORLD CITIES

population. Berlin's low sugar cost is explained by the fact that Germany is a sugar-producing country and it had been planned that Germany could substitute sugar for other forms of food. Since these figures were compiled it is indicated in cables that even sugar prices are rapidly following other prices.

THE HUMBLE RICE ACHIEVES PRIZE FOR PRICE INCREASE

Beef, the great human staple, is naturally much inflated in price. In Vienna beef has risen 256 per cent. Even in America common dried beef has risen 100 per cent. But it remains for plain, common, every-day *rice* to top the highest of all known price advances, whether for munition raw materials, food or whatnot. Rice in Vienna is 552 per cent. above normal; 426 per cent. in Berlin. The highest raw material advance is 431 per cent., for bleaching powder (see price advance list). Even in sequestered Switzerland sugar is advanced 80 per cent., while England, the home of mutton, now pays 80 per cent. more for it.

In America the cost of living went to a high point at once on news of war, August, 1914, jumping in twenty days from 141.5 (index number) to 162.4. But it promptly receded, being carried downward by stock scare, until it touched the low point of 136.3 in September, 1915. Then it steadily shot ahead until it reached a new high mark of 169 in May. At that time it declined, but on the first of July reached the record level of 170. The New York *World* has stirred up an indignant crusade against high prices, claiming that chasing after abnormal foreign war profits is costing the Ameri-

can consumer a pretty penny. Even the United States War Department, finding itself up against unconscionably high prices in munitioning Uncle Sam's army, began agitation for an association of dealers for protection against exorbitant prices. It was also remembered that large army orders disturb the market and bring on increases to the public.

GASOLINE PRICES

A curious thing has been that more fuss was made over the 72 per cent. rise in gasoline than over food prices. The Federal Trade Commission made inquiry into gasoline, but not into food. It is apparent that gasoline is an article of almost universal consumption and an object of universal solicitude.

But the seriously upsetting element of price increase has been in industry's raw materials and labor; also uncertainty of supply at any price. It is common now for officers of concerns who have never heretofore consented to see raw material makers to visit them in an humble spirit and endeavor to place an order—price no consideration. Unfortunately all makers are in much the same

WHAT WAR HAS DONE TO AMERICAN MATERIALS

The wholesale prices of the following staple articles have increased as follows since July 1, 1914:

Bleaching powder	431	per cent
Blue Vitriol	245	per cent
Sulphuric acid	233	per cent
Caustic soda	191	per cent
Glycerine	162	per cent
Muriatic acid	161	per cent
Bessemer Steel Billets	125	per cent
Wrapping-paper	122	per cent
Copper	97	per cent
Silk	85	per cent
Galvanized sheet iron	73	per cent
Gasoline	72	per cent
Nails	67	per cent
Tin	47	per cent
Pig-iron	47	per cent
Leather	44	per cent
White lead in oil	44	per cent
Clay worsted cloth	40	per cent
Paper (news roll)	33	per cent
Worsted serge	33	per cent
Wool	30	per cent
Flour	25	per cent
Gingham cloth	22	per cent
Builder's lath	17	per cent
Brick	14	per cent

position, and the result is "stalemate." Many thousands of industries are "oversold." Price—once the tender spot, the keen bone of contention—now is no consideration, for all sorts of wild price increases are the rule, not the exception.

Abuse of the situation has been a result—it being figured by some who have no cost increases that in the general upward scramble they, too, might as well apply price-pressure. Some frankly say they use high price as a brick-bat to club business away!

The cost of money has gone up as well as the cost of materials. "Call loans" in July, 1914, were 2 and 3 per cent.; in July, 1916, they were 3 and 4½ per cent. Time loans were 2½ and 3 per cent.; to-day they are 3¼ to 4¼ per cent. In Minneapolis a record of 6 per cent. for commercial discounts has been reached.

PRICES UP TO STAY

Labor costs have tremendously increased in many lines. The May first labor strikes and raises are estimated to have amounted to

THE PRICE PRESSURE ON WORLD CENTERS

Percentage of increase in the retail prices of food in New York, London, and Berlin since July 1, 1914:

	New York	London	Berlin
Sugar ...	81 per cent	152 per cent	30 per cent
Potatoes..	33 per cent	47 per cent	37 per cent
Mutton ..	28 per cent	80 per cent	160 per cent
Flour	25 per cent	60 per cent	14 per cent
Beef	13 per cent	60 per cent	180 per cent
Bacon ...	8 per cent	37 per cent	153 per cent
All foods	20 per cent	55 per cent	100 per cent

several billion dollars. Common ordinary carpenters have been paid this spring as high as \$50 per week! Publicists are crying in alarm that a vicious, ever-widening circle of price rise is being created and that ruin will follow in its wake. Calmer reasoning by past experience hardly justifies this. War price increases—like war taxes—are never reduced. They pin themselves permanently to the social fabric and demand that their high level—though perhaps not their high peaks—be regarded as the normal level of the future. Such a situation acts upon the upset industries as war has acted upon traditional England—it has pried loose many set notions and compelled new thinking and new planning.

The usual curious result of mounting prices is visible now—the added prosperity of both the laboring man and the capitalist, but the embarrassment of the middle professional, esthetic, salaried classes. They have no means, like labor, of forcing salary standards upward to meet price increases; nor have they real opportunity to share in profits. As a result America's laboring classes and proprietary classes are more prosperous than ever before, while the middle classes are only normally prosperous, but with abnormally high prices to meet.

What will happen to prices if war ends is a popular bogey; but one thing is certain: the upward movement of prices has revolutionized the economic world, and may contain in it the germ of some social revolutions as well.

AN AMERICAN WOMAN'S NOTES ON MEXICO

THE last three months of 1913 and the first four of 1914 formed a critical period in the relations between the United States and Mexico. While the Huerta Government was making its last desperate efforts to win the recognition of the United States, the Administration at Washington, ceasing to rely on the usual diplomatic channels of information, sent a confidential agent to the Mexican capital, and at the same time made overtures to the insurgents under General Carranza in the north, who were greatly aided by the removal of the embargo on border shipments of arms and munitions. The friction between the two nations culminated in the seizure by our navy of the city

of Vera Cruz and the landing there of United States troops.

During those trying months there remained in Mexico only a few Americans whose heads were steady enough to enable them to see clearly and relate calmly and impartially what was going on. One member of this little group was a woman—Mrs. Nelson O'Shaughnessy, wife of the American Chargé d'Affaires at Mexico City. Her letters to her mother, written from day to day in natural family intimacy, and not intended for publication, give the most vivid picture that has come to us of the unfolding scene of anarchy.

These letters now appear in a volume en-

titled "A Diplomat's Wife in Mexico."¹ If an occasional judgment expressed in one of the early letters seems inconsistent with opinions expressed at a later date, it is only a frank revelation of the writer's limitations and changes in viewpoint and detracts in no way from the essential candor and sincerity of her narrative.

Many of the facts stated and opinions expressed in Mrs. O'Shaughnessy's letters have a direct bearing on the Mexican situation of to-day. Soon after the arrival of the Hon. John Lind in the capacity of President Wilson's confidential agent, Mrs. O'Shaughnessy recorded her emphatic dissent from his attitude on the shipment of arms from the United States to the Mexican insurgents:

Something that developed in a conversation with Mr. Lind has been making me a bit thoughtful, and more than a little uneasy. He has the idea, perhaps the plan, of facilitating the rebel advance by raising the embargo, and I am afraid that he will be recommending it to Washington. We had been sitting, talking, after dinner, shivering in the big room over a diminutive electric stove, when he first tentatively suggested such action. I exclaimed: "Oh, Mr. Lind! You can't mean that! It would be opening a Pandora box of troubles here." Seeing how aghast I was, he changed the subject. But I cannot get it out of my head.

Mrs. O'Shaughnessy admitted that the raising of the embargo on arms and ammunition in the north might go far to settle the Huerta dictatorship, but not the larger Mexican situation. In the following February, when news was received in Mexico City of the actual raising of the embargo, Mrs. O'Shaughnessy wrote:

This act will not establish the rebels in Mexico City or anywhere else, but will indefinitely prolong this terrible civil war and swell the tide of the blood of men and women, "and the children—oh, my brothers."

A generation of rich and poor alike will be at the mercy of the hordes that will have new strength and means to fight, and eat, and pillage, and rape their way through the country. There will be a stampede of people leaving town to-night and to-morrow, but those in the interior, what of them? There is sure to be violent anti-American demonstration, especially in out-of-the-way places.

At last came the Vera Cruz incident and actual intervention. Admiral Fletcher received orders to prevent the delivery by the

Ypiranga of the arms and munitions which she was carrying to the Mexican Government and to seize the customs. Commenting on the international situation in that month of April, 1914, Mrs. O'Shaughnessy said:

I think we have done a great wrong to these people; instead of cutting out the sores with a clean, strong knife of war and occupation, we have only put our fingers in each festering wound and inflamed it further. In Washington there is a word they don't like, though it has been written all over this port by every movement of every warship and been thundered out by every cannon—war. What we are doing is war, accompanied by all the iniquitous results of half measures, and in Washington they call it "peaceful occupation."

These prophecies of evil—which have been verified only too fully in the event—occupy only a small portion of these intensely interesting letters. There are etching-like portraits of all the leading personalities that had a place on the Mexican stage in those crucial months. In no other form has there been preserved so human and convincing a likeness of Victoriano Huerta, the crafty old Indian who sought at that time to guide the destinies of his troubled country.

There is a well-deserved tribute to Admiral Fletcher for his steadying influence in averting actual war, and there are also attractive pen pictures of Sir Lionel Carden, the British Minister, and Admiral Sir Christopher Cradock, who was later to lose his life in the naval battle off the coast of Chile.



MRS. NELSON O'SHAUGHNESSY

¹ A Diplomat's Wife in Mexico. By Mrs. Nelson O'Shaughnessy. Harper. 355 p. Ill. \$2.



THE MOTOR CYCLE SQUAD, SERGEANT SAMUEL JOHNSON, COMMANDING

POLICE PREPAREDNESS IN NEW YORK

BY WILLIAM MENKEL

POLICING a city in time of peace is one thing. Coping with an extraordinary emergency like a Dayton flood or a San Francisco fire is a far different one. On such occasions the local police force is likely to be unprepared and inadequate for the job, and United States troops or the State militia must be called in to bring order out of chaos, keep down lawlessness, and organize shelter and relief work. It is a wise city that prepares for such emergencies in time of peace and order.

The work of the New York Police Department in getting ready for just such crises is an interesting lesson in "preparedness" and an example of what can be done by the police force of a large municipality to put itself in shape for handling sudden calamities. For fully a year now a campaign of preparation has been systematically pursued, with the result that to-day the Police Department of America's greatest city is prepared to the best of its ability to meet almost any conditions brought about by fire, flood, cyclone, tidal wave, earthquake, or even a foreign invasion. The force of 11,000 men is trained for all the various kinds of work involved in dealing with a sudden catastrophe. The plans are ready and need only to be drawn forth from their pigeon-hole in order to set the whole machinery in motion. In case of riot or other necessity, 8,000

men can be concentrated almost immediately at any given point in the entire city.

In any great disaster, the first problem is to provide food and shelter for the homeless. Such unfortunate people immediately become a great, suffering, distracted horde, difficult to handle effectively without organization. These "refugees" have been carefully planned for. Sites for camps have been selected,

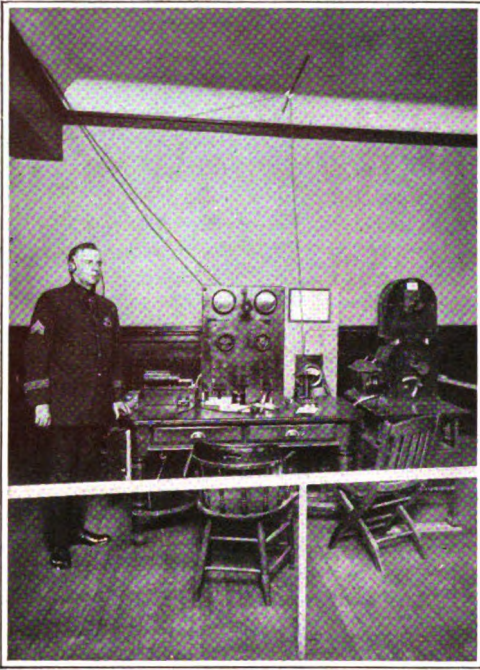
boats and vehicles listed for transportation purposes, and arrangements made for canvas shelter. The whole camp will be conducted according to the highest standards of camp hygiene and sanitation as laid down by modern military regulations. This work will all be done by policemen. They not only know how to lay out the camp site, but can pitch the tents, and put into operation all the sanitary measures applying to large groups of people housed in one camp. They have had the best of training, both theoretical and practical, under regular army officers. Many of them have been through the course at the Plattsburg camps for this very purpose.

Then there is the commissary branch of the work. The people must be fed, and that without the delay and waste of the well-intentioned but hastily and ill-organized volunteer efforts. This commissary work has been studied to the last detail. The Police Department not only knows exactly where to



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ARTHUR H. WOODS
Police Commissioner of New York City



THE POLICE WIRELESS PLANT, WITH SERGEANT PEARCE IN CHARGE

lay its hands immediately on the needed food supplies, but will furnish out of its own ranks the cooks to prepare the meals. Even bills-of-fare have been planned and an outfit of eating utensils provided. Provision has also been made against the possible cutting off of the city's outside food supply by the destruction of railroad terminals and other transportation facilities.

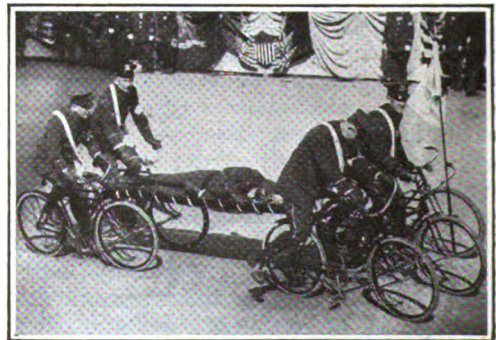
In times of disaster, telegraph and telephone wires are often destroyed. It would be difficult in such a case to communicate in the ordinary way with the various police units scattered throughout the great city. The department, therefore, has its own wireless stations and operators, and its signal corps trained in wigwag, heliograph, and other systems of communication, so that even with the telephone and telegraph lines disconnected, orders can be sent out and the men mobilized for their different duties.

The possibility of foreign invasion also brings along its problems for the police. A threatening enemy may have agents within the city, ready to destroy the water supply and transportation depots with a few well-placed explosives. All the important points of the city's public services have therefore been carefully noted and will be heavily guarded at the first sign of trouble. Important public buildings will likewise have

strong police lines thrown around them.

All this emergency work would naturally divert a large part of the force from its ordinary duties. Disorderly elements are prone to take advantage of just such conditions, and looting and other forms of lawlessness take place. This is where another organization, recently formed, will step in as a second line of police defense. It is called the Home Defense League. This organization is simply the banding together in every police precinct of a group of citizens for training as a police reserve. There are already about two hundred of these precinct organizations, with a total membership of about 21,000 men. The members of this Home Defense League meet weekly in school buildings, halls, or vacant lots, for lectures and practical instruction in police duties, calisthenics, and military drill. The police captain of the precinct supervises the work, but the men elect their own officers and will in due time be provided with their own distinctive uniforms and badges.

The scheme as a whole is frankly experimental, but the enthusiasm so far exhibited by the different branches of this Home Defense League speaks well for its success. The League's first participation in practical work came last month, when the members assisted the police in enforcing sanitary regulations to prevent the spread of infantile paralysis. When it is considered that in the event of a serious war a regiment or two may very possibly be recruited entirely from the ranks of the Police Department, the importance of having a trained reserve to step into the vacant places will easily be seen. A city must not be without sufficient police protection even under ordinary conditions. But one can imagine the serious plight of a large community called on to face a sudden outbreak of domestic disorder at a time, for instance, like the present—when a large part of its



A RED CROSS SQUAD, WITH BICYCLE STRETCHER

State militia is serving on the Mexican border, more than a thousand miles away.

The job of the policeman in a big city is far from being simply a matter of pounding the pavement. His work is many-sided. He must be something of a lawyer, partly street-cleaner and health officer, naturally a peace officer, and also a good deal of a military man. While other branches of the policeman's training have always received considerable attention, the military side has only recently been developed. It forms a distinct and important part of the preparedness program of the New York police. Anyone who saw the members of New York's "Finest" on the occasion of their recent annual parade will appreciate the military proficiency that has been gained by the men. While it is not designed to make a military man out of the policeman, it is essential for him to know how to give proper commands in a clear, intelligent manner, and how to move large bodies of men from one point to another with order and precision. These results are produced by military drill, which also helps greatly to develop discipline and a spirit of coöperation which are essential to the morale of the city's organized police force. The handling of weapons is, of course, a necessary feature of the policeman's training. The men are instructed in revolver practise and are also taught to shoot with the regular army rifle, and to operate machine and rapid-fire guns.

To supply as much practical experience as possible, a "Police Plattsburg" has been established at Fort Wadsworth, on Staten Island. Here throughout the summer the policemen will come in companies of 350 at a time for a stay of two weeks. The course is volun-

tary, the men pay their own expenses, and do all the work of maintaining the camp in its food and sanitary arrangements. Instruction is under the auspices of regular army officers and police officers, and is adapted to the special needs of a policeman's work. There is a twelve-hour day of field work, with lectures and demonstrations at night. Beside military training, the instruction includes calisthenics, boxing, wrestling, jiu-jitsu, the operation of motor launches, automobiles, and motorcycles, the care and feeding of horses, "wigwag" and other methods of signalling, the laying out and maintenance of the sanitary military camp, and the providing, issuing, preparation, and serving of food.

This whole program of preparedness on which the New York Police Department has been engaged now for over a year will undoubtedly prove valuable from a number of standpoints. Besides its importance as contributing to the assurance of security for the community, the work provides an incentive for the building up of a right spirit of interest among the men in their work and makes for the general strengthening of one of the city's most important departments. Its effect on the citizens in general must be one of increased confidence in their police protectors. It is highly fortunate that all this work of preparation for the various possible contingencies has been planned with the coöperation of the regular army officials and the State National Guard. In this way the Police Department has not only benefited by the knowledge and experience of the military organizations in the handling of emergency situations, but has also guarded against clashes of authority and duplication of work.



Underwood & Underwood

DEFENDING THE FORT IN A SHAM BATTLE DURING THE POLICE GAMES AT SHEEPSHEAD BAY, SHOWING THE NEW YORK POLICE IN BATTLE PRACTISE

DAYLIGHT-SAVING IN AMERICA

[In the June number of this REVIEW there was printed an article relating to the adoption, by most of the countries of Europe, of a scheme for making more use of daylight by setting all clocks forward one hour during the summer. Readers in Cleveland and Detroit have since called attention to the fact that they have enjoyed similar benefits for several years. In these American communities, the method has been to adopt the later hour of Standard Time zone to the East. Formerly, when it was seven o'clock in the morning at New York it was six at Detroit and Cleveland; now it is the same clock time in all three places. Thus the people of Detroit and Cleveland, without extra effort, rise an hour earlier than formerly and enjoy an hour more of daylight. Movements are on foot in Chicago and St. Louis to make similar changes. In New York City, the Hon. Marcus M. Marks, President of the Borough of Manhattan, is leading a campaign which has attracted attention throughout the entire East.—THE EDITOR.]

I.—CLEVELAND UNDER EASTERN TIME

BY W. S. LLOYD

THAT a prophet is not without honor, save in his own country, is being exemplified to the residents of Cleveland, Ohio, this summer as they read, in many forms, accounts of the efforts being made by the peoples of European countries to utilize an extra hour of daylight on account of the exigencies of the European war.

Cleveland, "no mean city," as the government census records, has been rejoicing in the benefits arising from arbitrarily turning the hands of her clocks one hour ahead since the morning of May 1, 1914, and no one of her three-fourths of a million people would think, for a moment, of turning them back again. This simple device, which Mr. Charles Fitzhugh Talman designates in the June issue of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS as "bristling with difficulties," was made effective at midnight between two days and no one ever knew the difference. It was a bright May morning and everything was apparently going on as usual.

Since the adoption of Eastern time two thousand or more Clevelanders have been daily playing baseball in the parks during the summer season, and one thousand others have been playing tennis for that hour of daylight which they have secured by earlier rising.

It may be said that Cleveland, being in the "central" zone of railway time, of course has its railway trains entering and leaving on their own arbitrarily determined time. The traveler may find some annoyance in adjusting his watch to Eastern standard time on his arrival in Cleveland. It is easy to remember the difference, however, and Cleve-

landers impose no greater inconvenience upon their visitors than they impose upon themselves, for they must also bear the change of time in mind when they make their arrangements to travel. But the new scheme is working out splendidly. The workman goes home to his family by daylight and reads his evening paper by the light of the sun. The economic saving in electric light or gas bills is marked.

Here are a few facts in regard to the hours of daylight in this latitude: Light before sunrise and after sunset varies from fifteen minutes to one and a half hours, depending upon weather conditions, and the figures to be found on daylight and darkness as presented by the committee on Eastern time of the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce were based upon ideal weather conditions. The day of June 22d of each year in Cleveland shows the greatest amount of daylight, or fifteen hours and fourteen minutes. The 22d day of December, on the other hand, experiences only nine hours and eleven minutes of daylight, which is the smallest amount of the year. The earliest rising of the sun is at 3:51 o'clock and the latest rising at 6:54 o'clock; also the earliest setting occurs at 3:55 o'clock and the latest setting at 7:06 o'clock. These figures show that on the day of the most sunlight the sun rises at too early an hour to benefit the majority of our citizens, and on the day of least sunlight many are deprived of the sunlight after working hours by its early setting. Assuming that the average hours of rising and retiring are 6 and 10 o'clock, re-

spectively, 201 hours, or the equivalent of thirty-three minutes more daylight each day, during the year are secured for added activities by the adoption of "Eastern" time.

In a city like Cleveland the recreation of the majority of its citizens is taken during the afternoons and early evenings. This part of their lives is one of the most important and is essential to the success of their more serious efforts. By adopting Eastern standard time these citizens obtained 234 hours of additional daylight during the year. That time has been devoted to outdoor recreation; 276 days, or three-quarters of the year, were afforded daylight after 5:30 o'clock in the evening.

These beneficent results had their origin in the report of the Committee on Eastern Time appointed by the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce which resulted in the enactment of an ordinance simply to announce that "the standard of time throughout the City of Cleveland shall be that of the seventy-fifth meridian of longitude west from Greenwich, known as 'Eastern standard time.' Municipal offices and legal or official proceedings of the City of Cleveland shall be regulated thereby; and when by ordinance, resolution, or action of any municipal officer or body an act must be performed at or within a prescribed time, it shall be so performed according to such standard of time."



THE STANDARD TIME ZONES

(In 1883, through the initiative of the railroads and primarily for their benefit, a system of Standard Time was formulated. The country was divided into four zones, the centers being apart 15 longitudinal degrees, or exactly one hour sun time. Cleveland and Detroit have "saved" daylight by discarding Central Time and adopting Eastern Time. To put the plan into effect throughout the entire country would be even more simple—leave the zones as they are, and set all clocks ahead one hour in *all* zones)

Nor has the city of Cleveland hid its light under a bushel. The committee on Eastern standard time of the Chamber of Commerce is still in existence and is ready to give the benefits of its experience to civic bodies of other cities. The city of Detroit has already followed the example of Cleveland for its growing population of wage-earners; Chicago has the matter under consideration, and Cleveland's message to all her sister cities is that no effort should be made to curtail the benefits of early rising to a portion of the year. If the clocks are turned forward they should never be turned backward for the fact that a little inconvenience may be caused by the early rising on a dark winter morning, for the benefits exist in December as well as May.

II.—EARLY RISING IN DETROIT

BY GEORGE L. RENAUD, M.D.

DETROIT adopted Eastern Standard Time on May 15, 1915, after nine years of agitation. This attempt to improve conditions by the adoption of a fast system of time was the first organized effort made in this country, and was without knowledge of a movement then under way in England. Owing to general ignorance and apathy, and lack of newspaper support, public interest was very slow to be awakened. The More-Daylight Club was organized in 1907, at a meeting attended by but one other person

besides the writer. We worked against the opposition of the press, the Board of Commerce, organized labor, and every organization approached. However, we forced a vote in the fall of 1908, and out of nearly 150 voting precincts we did not carry a single one. Continuing our educational campaign, we felt strong enough in 1911 to submit the question again, and carried eight wards out of eighteen.

From the first we tried to create interest throughout the State and in outside cities,

hoping ultimately to change the whole railroad dividing line. In Cleveland, the seed fell on good soil, and with the support of an aggressive Board of Commerce and a liberal press, Eastern Standard Time was adopted there on May 1, 1914.

We continued our efforts, pointing to the success of the scheme in Cleveland, and convinced our Common Council that the majority of people were by that time in favor of it. An ordinance was accordingly passed which went into effect on May 15, 1915.

The agitation for Eastern Standard Time was an effort to recover several hundred hours yearly of daylight that were lost in the early morning hours, before arising, and utilizing them at the end of the day for purposes of recreation, outdoor living, health, etc. The scheme is based upon the fact that our habits are regulated largely by the clock. Under Central Standard Time, during nine or ten months of the year the sun was shining from one to several hours each morning while we were asleep, while darkness rapidly approached soon after the end of the day's work. Of the advantages of recovering much of this waste of daylight, there can be no argument. As to the method of doing so, the adoption of a fast time offers the only logical, feasible, and practical method for a community.

Under Eastern Standard Time we have nearly 300 hours more of daylight yearly after 5 p. m. than we had under Central Standard Time. Think of what this means in opportunities for indulging in out-of-door life and recreation, the improvement of the general health, increased resistance to disease through increased vitality, the preservation of our visual organs, as well as the great economic saving to the community. Naturally most of our recreation is taken after the day's labor is completed. The brief period of daylight now at our disposal, between the hours of work and sleep, is frequently insufficient for outdoor recreation.

Thousands of our citizens suffer from weak eyes, and practically every one has to have attention sooner or later for his eyes. The great advantage of living for about 300 hours less each year under artificial light, with the added advantage in many instances of better general health, would benefit the thousands of sufferers and would in many cases be the deciding factor in warding off serious affliction of the eyes.

The wonderful material progress of this great country has almost caused us to forget that there is something worth while besides

work and riches. The general contentment and happiness of communities, especially the working classes in the cities, must not be overlooked. The average citizen will not only be healthier, but better satisfied with his lot in life if he can go home early during the pleasant months of the year and be able to take some advantage of daylight.

The least of the advantages claimed for the "more daylight" plan is the saving in the consumption of artificial light. Little stress is laid upon this, because the other advantages are so vastly more important, and yet the citizens of Detroit save each year about \$300,000. If we had to pay that sum, or even ten times as much, for the benefits secured by Eastern Standard Time it would be worth the price. Think of it, \$300,000 saved, not only this year, but next year and each succeeding year!

The most frequent objection relates to the railroads, but there is no doubt that the railroads will change the present dividing lines between the Standard Time zones when the sentiment of the people becomes strong enough. Until such a time, what is the condition? To listen to the objectors you would imagine the confusion was dreadful. As a matter of fact, there is absolutely none. The traveling public is but a small part of the population.

Eastern Time is used by all the people of Detroit generally, except the railroads. Banks, courts, and all institutions observing State laws operate under Eastern Time as regards opening and closing hours and the ordinary conduct of business, using Central Time only in legal publications where required by law.

The time question in Detroit is once more to be submitted to a vote of the people, in August. Last winter, during the short days, some opposition developed in certain quarters. But the great majority of people seem to be more than satisfied, and we confidently expect to win.

Our ultimate aim is, and always has been, to have the dividing lines between the time zones so placed that all sections of the country would be operating under a fast time. For instance, if the present line dividing Eastern from Central time could be changed from Buffalo, Pittsburgh, and Atlanta to Chicago and Mobile (or perhaps to the Mississippi), all of the States of Michigan, Ohio, Indiana, Kentucky, Tennessee, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, and Mississippi would have the advantages that have accrued to Cleveland and Detroit.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

UNIVERSAL MILITARY SERVICE

A SEARCHING criticism of the army reorganization plan adopted by Congress is contributed to the current number of the *Yale Review* by Professor Hiram Bingham. This writer condemns the Hay-Chamberlain Reorganization bill as essentially a "pork-barrel" measure in that it plans the distribution of national funds on a large scale to military organizations not directly under Federal control. "Millions of dollars are to be handed over by the Federal Government to officers whom Federal officials cannot discharge for incompetence and to organizations which those who are responsible for national defense cannot disband for inefficiency or insubordination."

The worst of it all, says Professor Bingham, is that Congress is playing politics in the face of a world-wide conflagration. "Are we willing to allow our 'hired men' in Congress to have an amusing little game of pinch-ochle while the woods are on fire?"

It seems to be the belief of Congress that advocates of national preparedness will be satisfied if some addition is made to the standing army and if citizens joining the militia are paid for their services. But these offerings, according to Professor Bingham, are mere sops to those communities that have armories. In other words, Congress is giving the people "soothing syrup" when there is need of strong medicines.

Will any member of Congress explain how the United States army is going to be made nearly three times its present size, when it has been practically impossible to keep the present little force recruited up to full strength? Perhaps some members know it cannot be done. Congress is going to tell us that it has done its duty to the nation by increasing the standing army; and when we find that the standing army is not very much bigger than it was before—as we are likely to find so long as wages are high and there is no great body of unemployed—Congress will tell us that American citizens are not patriotic, because they are not becoming recruits.

In answer to this, why not look at the root of the evil? When a man joins the standing army he enlists for *seven years*; the first three of which must be with the colors. The pay is

meagre—only fifteen dollars a month. It would not be right to have a heavily paid, large, mercenary force enlisting and fighting for us purely because of the large pay that we provide; but how can we expect honest, ambitious young Americans, willing to do their duty by the defense of their country, eager to get the necessary amount of training, and appreciative of the physical and mental value of army discipline, to sign away their freedom for seven years? Fortunately some men are born fighters and love the service. They naturally will become officers. Were it not that love of fighting is not entirely dead among us, it would be difficult to get even as many "regulars" as we do now; but it is ridiculous to suppose that merely increasing the size of the army on paper is going to attract to it enough of the right kind of men.

If the period of enlistment were reduced to one year; if the regiments were composed of men from the same locality, so that a man might be sure of getting into a regiment composed of men from his own State, where the *esprit de corps* would be kept up by local friendships and acquaintances both before and after enlistment; if care were taken to see to it that the year of active service was unquestionably made good for both body and mind, so that when men came home from it they were better men in every way than they were before,—then I believe there would be no difficulty in securing recruits and in making the army of whatever size was needed. Furthermore, if the citizens found that their sons came home from a year in the army, sounder men physically and more alert mentally, there would be no question about providing enough regiments and enough equipment to meet the needs of those who cared to enlist. Such a scheme, moreover, would lessen the disgraceful number of desertions that annually occur in the ranks of the United States army. If regiments were recruited from localities so that the deserter on his return home found himself faced by an outraged public opinion in the very place that took pride in his regiment, desertion would become uncommon.

In Professor Bingham's opinion, nothing less than an efficient citizen soldiery based on universal military training will meet our needs in the matter of national defense. His contention is that every able-bodied citizen should have at least one year's military training or its equivalent. This equivalent might take the form of joining the militia or entering the military companies organized in the State universities, or it might take the form

of three months in camp each year, beginning at the age of eighteen. As a country we believe in compulsory education and compulsory military training of the kind proposed by Professor Bingham would be no more of a hardship than to spend, as every American must, a certain number of years in going to school.

To the objection that universal military training leads to militarism Professor Bingham replies that this objection is based on a failure to appreciate the difference between a democracy and a monarchy. "There is no

danger that a universal citizen soldiery will tolerate militarism here any more than it does in Switzerland, which has been for years a splendid model of a nation in arms. The mobilization of the Swiss army can be effected within a few days. The possession of a relatively large army has not only not led Switzerland to engage in the great European conflict, but it has definitely prevented her from being overrun by the larger armies of her neighbors. In Switzerland every able-bodied man has been given military training as a matter of citizenship."

FUNDAMENTALS OF MILITARY TRAINING

THE military preparedness wave is widespread, and every corner of the country has felt its impulse in some shape or other. There are summer training camps, both governmental and private; universities have added lecture courses in military science to their curricula; volunteer bodies of citizens have devoted themselves to weekly drill work, and National Guard enlistments have been stimulated.

Captain Richard Stockton, Jr., writing in the *Journal of the Military Service Institution* (New York), sees in all the variegated schemes and theories of military training now rampant a lack of conception of the fundamental requirements of the good soldier. "The nation is in actual danger from the well-meant enthusiasm of the men who plan to 'save the day.'" He refers to the time-honored obsession in the reasoning of American citizens that "the soldier is the last man to whom we should look for military advice."

If the fourteen lawyers, three merchants, two editors, the banker, the drummer, and the ball-player comprising the military committee of the Lower House of Congress can utterly disregard the advice of all the military experts of the nation and frame a military bill that will give us "preparedness," why cannot the farmers on the Boonville Board of Education, or the clergymen who are trustees of Blank Institute do likewise with equal success?

Arguing that military training which is stripped of its most valuable attributes is worse than none at all, Mr. Stockton declares that the fundamentals of military training consist neither of theory nor drill work, but are summed up in the development

of men—men strong in character and body. And at the bottom of this development must be the instillation of the "military virtues," chief of which is discipline. It was the lack of this element which caused Washington's chief trouble with his armies.

To-day, in the opinion of the writer, this lack of subordination to proper authority is more pronounced among our young citizens than during the Revolution. There is a dislike of reasonable restraint. He instances a number of cases where men failed to make good officers or soldiers because of the lack of the fundamental qualities required.

Regardless of technical and theoretical training, and regardless of the amount of mere drill which a man may have, he cannot be a good soldier unless he has certain essential characteristics as a foundation. This foundation must be courage rather than cowardice, physical fitness in place of lack of development, patriotism, not self-interest, constraint rather than license, discipline rather than lawlessness, quick initiative, not dulness, courtesy in place of boorishness.

It must include the ability to obey orders promptly in face of great danger, to suffer hardships, to assume skilfully leadership of men, to accept great responsibility without hesitation. Without servility, it must include a strong sense of obligation, due consideration for elders, for those in authority, for law and proper customs.

This is the kind of development that cannot be attained by any brief and superficial training. As General Washington found, "To bring men under proper discipline and subordination not only requires time, but is a work of great difficulty." "It is only to be obtained by a constant course of discipline and service."

How is this necessary training to be ob-

tained? Preferably, Mr. Stockton thinks, by a compulsory course of several years in the Regular Army.

If we cannot have compulsory service in our regular force, the solution is to make those in charge of our schools and colleges understand that mere military *drill* is not training—that mere military *theory* is not training, and that mere drill and theory are not the most important things to instil in the youth of America.

It should be made clear that the training which our schools should give to be of greater military value is identical with that needed to correct one of the greatest defects in our educational system. We should make our educators understand that the most important contribution that they can make to the cause of citizenship, as well as to that of "preparedness," is to give our youth the much-needed "constant course of discipline."

To this end the students in our schools should be put constantly in uniform and well

drilled in "close order" work; they should be made to conform to all the regulations of military life, observing its rules, customs, and courtesies. Institutions conducted on such standards should be studied and imitated.

Let them, as far as practicable, introduce the life of these institutions in our educational system. If necessary omit the more advanced military work—merely provide the constant discipline—the military atmosphere. Let the students learn to obey, let them as cadet officers have actual authority and learn to command, give attention to physical requirements, promptness, the extremes of military courtesy. Let them gain knowledge of our military history, and of the requirements of a sound military policy. Let them drill only in so far as is desirable from a disciplinary viewpoint, but give them military discipline—complete military supervision and life at all times. Such would be the best military training for our youth.

COMBINING TO CAPTURE FOREIGN MARKETS

THE Federal Trade Commission has just placed before Congress a voluminous report which tells clearly the story of American weakness and foreign strength in international trade, as due, on the one hand, to competition, and, on the other, to coöperation, between exporters of the same nationality. At this writing Congress is considering legislation designed to modify, or clarify, our anti-trust laws so as to remove what is, in the opinion of the Commission, a fatal obstacle to the development of American export trade. A preliminary report of the Commission declares that "if American business men are to make the most of the great opportunities now before them, are to build securely in foreign trade, and are to avoid disaster in the shock of the stern and determined competition that will doubtless follow the war, they must at once perfect the organization demanded by the conditions of international trade."

A convincing presentation of the same need is published in the current number of *The Americas* (New York) under the title "Paying Unnecessary Tribute to Foreign Business Combinations." Many striking illustrations are given of the conditions that have heretofore prevailed.

For example, we would be manufacturing certain "intermediate" chemicals here to-day with an almost certain collateral dyestuffs industry if it had not been for the fact that German interests

boldly sent in the ultimatum that our companies would be put out of business if they went into it, cut prices to an impossible level as an earnest of what they said, and flooded the market here with cheap products. Our trust law, minus permissive features that could be a part of it without any inconsistency of its purpose, simply tied the hands of our own business men and made it easy for the foreigner. At that time it would have been useless to think of the practical method of combating. To-day, with the more constructive attitude of the country toward legitimate organizations of business on the large scale, there is prospect of forming a national industry in the fine chemicals and men capable of carrying it through are ready to go in, despite the fact that the two great German interests that formerly competed in certain limited ways are now combined and that two great English companies, after absorbing small rivals, have also merged by exchange of securities.

The story of American copper is another case in point. We lead the world in the production of this metal, but Germany has heretofore controlled the market.

Three great metal houses join in a triangle of community of interest. They are interlinked with Germany's great banks, with great mining concerns over the whole world, and, through direct financial connection, with the copper-consuming industries of the Continent. They throw the vast impetus of this combination solidly upon the market when they will. And they are exclusive purchasers of the metals for the bulk of Germany's large manufacture.

So powerful was this "combine" that it forced our producers to sell copper to Euro-

pean manufacturers for less than its price in the country of its origin—to the disadvantage, of course, of our own manufacturers.

Thus collective bargaining by European interests combined against scattered sellers in this country put the European manufacturer in a position to underbid American industry, so that the manufacture of an American raw product into finished product was done in Europe instead of here, at the expense of the American pay-roll. Allowing for transportation, Europe got its copper for about \$53,000,000 less than it should have paid America for it.

This country produces half the phosphate rock of the world's output. This crude substance is said to match Germany's wealth of potash as one of a nation's natural resources. Germany forced its potash producers to make a combination with one selling agency. It doubled the price for the producers, also made the rest of the world pay 100 per cent. more into Germany's national income than they would have done at the rate of the previous individual sales. Our phosphate rock is selling at a price equal to one-third the prevailing world-market rate before we developed the industry. In other words, with no control over production or price, we are handing our resources over to the rest of the world at a bare profit on the operation of mining, when, according to the view of men qualified to judge the relations between the old established price and the increase of supply, the world would pay 100 per cent. more for all we now sell, if we should combine, as Germany did, and fix the higher price.

It is said that Germany had about 600 combinations of the "cartel" form before the war.

Germany gets the middle of the stage in all discussions of this kind of organization, because

of the number, elaborateness, and effectiveness of German cartels. However, Switzerland, France, Austria, Belgium, Holland, and England have concerns using practically the same methods. Japan is organizing on the basis of cartel policy. Australia has a dried-fruit monopoly that excludes our fruit from the market. Argentina has a quebracho organization that influences the cost of leather over the world. Chile has a nitrate combination. Ecuador has a combination of cocoa-growers.

The legislation which is proposed for our own manufacturers' benefit seems somewhat meager in its permissive scope, legalizing formal association in export activities only, but the effectiveness of the organization to which it will open the door is great. The great German iron syndicate, it is said, reduced the aggregate selling expenses of its members 50 per cent. in the first year of its existence. It will make possible the entry into profitable foreign business of many moderate-sized concerns that now find the expense of foreign selling organization prohibitive, and bring into our national export trade the benefit of so much more initiative and energy. It will permit organization of our cement industry, and of a development by which our raw phosphate may be marked up in price, or shipped out in advanced form. It would make entirely legal an association of the coal industry by which it could be bound together by contract to maintain a reasonable minimum for bunker coal.

It does not require more than ordinary imagination to see a development of formal coöperation in organizing foreign campaigns and in production for the foreign markets of a distinctively American kind, absolutely in loyal keeping with the policy of the Sherman Law as far as the American consumer's interests and the maintenance of the open door for competitive opportunity here is concerned. Much of such organization is probably lawful now, but no aggressive building up of it can come, as an extensive national movement, till the doubt is removed.

"DUMPING"

THE verb "to dump," in the senses with which we are most familiar, is an Americanism. It would be interesting to know how it came to be applied in England to a commercial practise perfected in Germany. The verbal noun "dumping" is now a cosmopolite. Hence we find in the current number of the French journal *La Nature* a timely article entitled "Le Dumping," from the pen of M. Paul Barré. "Dumping," says the author,

is a word of English origin designating a commercial practise which consists of establishing for one and the same product two scales of prices; viz., a relatively high price for the home market, and lower prices, variable according to circumstances and in many cases lower than the cost of production, for foreign markets.

This subject has just acquired special in-

terest here in America from the fact that the revenue bill which is now before Congress, and which will perhaps become law before this abstract appears in print, contains a drastic provision against dumping (figuring in the bill under the more euphonious name of "unfair competition"), and prescribes severe penalties for the infraction of the following section:

That it shall be unlawful for any person importing or assisting in importing any articles from any foreign country into the United States to commonly and systematically sell or cause to be sold such articles within the United States at a price substantially less than the actual market value or wholesale price of such articles, at the time of exportation to the United States, in the principal markets of the country of their production or of other foreign countries to which they are commonly exported, after adding to such market value or wholesale price freight, duty,

and other charges and expenses necessarily incidental to the importation and sale thereof in the United States: Provided, that such act or acts be done with the intent of destroying or injuring an industry in the United States or preventing the establishment of any industry in the United States, or of restraining or monopolizing any part of trade and commerce in such articles in the United States.

We quote this paragraph in full, as representing the crystallization of the idea of dumping in the legal mind of America.

Reverting to M. Barré's article:

In 1902 the German coke syndicate sold its product at 15 marks a ton in Germany and at 11 marks abroad. In 1900 the German wire syndicate sold its products abroad at 14 marks per 100 kilos, while the domestic price was 25 marks. It thus lost 859,000 marks abroad, while gaining 1,177,000 marks in the home market, but it opened up new outlets, and the loss sustained was considered as pertaining to the category of advertising expenses, indispensable in launching any new enterprise.

In some cases the difference between the foreign and domestic prices established by the German cartels has been so great that it was profitable to re-export to Germany certain German products sold abroad. Thus in 1902 German wrought iron sold at 200 marks at Essen and at 180 marks in Holland. Even with the addition of duties and transportation charges, German manufacturers found it economical to buy in Holland. Thus dumping overshot its aim, and certain economists rejoiced—too hastily—over the fact that the Germans were ruining themselves by their system. In reality the Germans consented knowingly to temporary sacrifices—even committed errors which were quickly corrected—but, on the whole, assured themselves a better commercial outlook.

A curious conflict was provoked when a German cartel reduced the price of wire to 98 marks a ton in Holland, while it was selling at 125 marks in Germany. Under

these conditions it became possible for Dutch and Belgian manufacturers of wire nails to invade the German market and sell their goods at Düsseldorf for 30 per cent. less than the price of the same product manufactured in Rhenish Prussia. The German nail syndicate was, however, equal to the occasion. It promptly reduced its export price to such a point that the budding industries of the adjacent countries were speedily put out of business.

To prevent the recurrence of such situations the German cartels entered into an agreement, about 1903, to prevent conflicts of interests between exporters in different lines, and also to provide for the compensation, from common funds, of exporters selling at a loss in foreign markets. Dumping thus ceased to be the expedient of independent industries, and became a national policy, encouraged by the state.

One result of Germany's scientific dumping was that German machines and machine tools replaced those of American make in the markets of France, Italy, and Switzerland. Not content, moreover, with such triumphs, the German cartels waged relentless war against the industries of these countries themselves, in their home markets. The carbolic-acid industry, for example, was driven out of France by this species of competition.

Dumping has for some time been recognized as a grave and growing menace to the prosperity of the countries upon which it has been practised, and we have now reached the stage of legislative activity against it. Canada and South Africa protect themselves by imposing special duties upon "dumped" imports. Our Government proposes to adopt even more vigorous measures.

THE BENEFIT TO RUSSIA OF AN ECONOMIC ENTENTE WITH THE ALLIES

IN connection with the economic conference of the Allies, recently held in Paris, there has been extensive discussion in the Russian press on the benefits or losses for Russia of an economic alliance with England, France, etc. Russian public men have urged the government to be cautious before embarking upon a new economic policy, some declaring that Russia's present political allies may replace Germany as the economic masters of Russia after the present war, thus leaving Russia in the position of an economic

slave as before; others arguing that the interests of Russia demand untrammelled and unobstructed economic relations with Germany.

A notable contribution to the discussion is a book on "Russian Grain Exports and Germany's Tariff," by Professor P. I. Liastchenko, published by the Commission on Commercial Treaties at the Ministry of Finances, and reviewed in a recent issue of the *Sovremenny Mir* (Petrograd), a prominent Russian monthly. The author analyzes all

the causes that are responsible for the unfavorable position occupied by Russia in her economic relations with Germany. He comes to the novel and amazing conclusion that the popular theory holding Germany responsible for arresting Russia's agricultural development lacks solid foundation. Russian grain exports to Germany, he shows, have been steadily growing in spite of the notorious German-Russian treaties of 1894 and 1904, in which Germany's agrarian tariff protectionism reached its apogee:

In the five years of 1891-95 the average yearly grain export to Germany was 62.8 million puds (a pud is 36 pounds), in 1896-1900 the grain export from Russia to Germany was 89 million puds, in 1901-1905 it was 125.8 millions, and in 1906-1910, 174.9 millions. In the twenty years of 1891-1910 the exports of grain from Russia to Germany grew 177 per cent.

One may, therefore, consider it a fully established fact by now that Germany's protective tariff did not bring about the expected results for Germany or Russia. For Russia the duties on its exported grain may have retarded somewhat a still more powerful growth of its bread exports to Germany, but it can hardly be said that they arrested Russia's bread exports and consequently her agricultural development. For Germany these duties have failed to keep Russian bread away from Germany and to substitute it by German.

But Professor Liastchenke goes still further. Not only is a protective tariff not preventing Russian grain exports to pour into a certain country, but, on the contrary, it proves an attraction for Russian grain. Thus have Russian grain exports grown in countries like Italy and France, where the custom-duties are high on bread imports, while in the open markets, where competition is strong, like England, Belgium and

Denmark, Russia was lagging considerably behind her competitors.

In the open market the price is determined by the world price; *i. e.*, alike for all producers and, *ceteris paribus*, it cannot be lower for any producer than the universal price. The *delinquent* producers are pressed out from these open markets and driven to the markets where there is a tariff. There they carry part of the custom duties; *i. e.*, they sell at a price lower than the general world price plus the duties.

Germany is a cheaper market for Russia's grain exports than England. But why should Russia seek cheaper markets and pay custom-duties? Why is she afraid of competition? To these questions the author replies with some well-known bitter truths. Russia cannot compete successfully because, first and foremost, her grain is not purified enough; because of her unsatisfactory manner of filling orders, of transacting business; because of the slowness of her transportation service and the defects in organization.

Under former conditions this unsatisfactory state would have continued. But the economic alliance with England holds out the promise of a solution. Bound to trade with her allies, Russia will be forced to improve in order successfully to hold her own. In order to fill the demands of her new discriminating clientele, Russia's agricultural and agronomical methods will become more up-to-date. Russia's transportation facilities will have to be better organized and much more extended. Russia's business manners and ethics will necessarily change from antiquated to modern. All of which will result in general efficiency, which implies higher prices, which means an era of prosperity for the Russian peasant.

GREEK AND BULGARIAN IN MACEDONIA

A VIGOROUS protest of the people of Greece against the action of their government in turning over to Bulgaria portions of Grecian Macedonia is voiced by *Hestia*, a paper of the Venizelos party published at Athens. After reminding its readers of former Bulgarian outrages committed on the Greeks of that region and the retreat of the Bulgarian army before the soldiers of Greece who rushed to the pursuit, this paper says:

In that very region on Greek soil there is

marching to-day a Bulgarian army, occupying Greek fortresses. And the Greek army is ordered by their own government to surrender them. The Greek flag is lowered, and the Bulgarian flag is unfurled. And the Greek soldiers close their eyes in order not to see; they restrain their brave souls to bear this unlooked-for scene—a real martyrdom!

Was it for this end that our whole army was kept under arms? Was it for this purpose that the state is being exhausted, the country oppressed, and the Greek people crushed? The reasons given for justification are unworthy of the Greek Government; and they cannot convince any Greek. The fact is, Grecian Mace-

donia is handed over to the Bulgarians. This alone would suffice, even if there were no danger that the occupation will be definite and permanent; this alone, the fact of the desecration of the Greek soil by incendiaries, murderers, and marauders of yesterday, would suffice to arouse every Greek soul. They are treading on the graves of their victims of yesterday, by the order of the Greek Government.

* * * *

But is this event really free of all danger? Yesterday they occupied two or three fortresses. To-morrow they will occupy some others. They will occupy all the places that constitute the keys of the defenses of Greek Macedonia. And Greece will wait for their return, relying on the assurances given by the German officer who led the Bulgarians. But who can guarantee that even Germany herself will wish or will be able to keep the promises of her officials? Especially promises that are given by special agreement to a section of the Greek army? Who will guarantee that the Bulgarians will wish to fulfil the promises of the Germans, even should their government desire to do so? Who can guarantee that when there exist no more the "special reasons" that necessitate the occupation of these Greek regions by the Bulgarians and the Germans, they will then be found in the same bonds of alliance as to-day?

Who can assure what a state of affairs will result from the war, until the day when the "special reasons" for the occupation of the Greek fortresses will cease? What will Greece then be able to do, being henceforth an underling of Bulgaria?

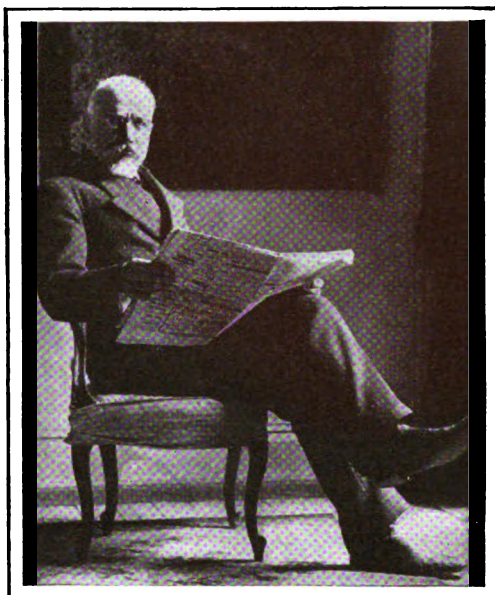
* * * *

And yet the government of Greece not only orders the Greek fortresses and regions claimed by the Bulgarians to be handed over without any fighting, but they even apologize—for the explanations given amount to an apology—that the Greek army at Rupel did not hasten to give up the fortress at once, but dared to defend itself, firing—

We do not want to ask whether such a surrender would not be characterized as meaning a violation of the benevolent neutrality promised to the Entente. As it was said to the Anglo-French forces at the beginning that they could proceed to the help of the Serbians only through the Valley of Vardar, why was there not given the same reply to the German-Bulgarians also, that they could pass against their enemies only through the same Greek soil? How is the whole of Macedonia given up for their free operation in war? What conscience allows it? What intelligence, what Greek judgment can fail to see the meaning and the effects of such a policy? Let us add also, what a shaking will the Greek idea, the Greek state, the Greek sovereignty suffer in the minds of the inhabitants of all Macedonia! . . . And yet Greece is keeping an army of 300,000! Why?

* * * *

Now there remains nothing but the declaration of martial law to complete the policy of the government. Now is the fittest moment. Since every form of defense against the Bulgarians is forbidden, and Macedonia is given them without opposition, let there be forbidden any form of protest on the part of the Greeks against such a policy. . . .



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York
EX-PREMIER VENIZELOS OF GREECE

THE GREEK FORTIFICATIONS

There is signed a protocol regarding the payment of an indemnity for the use of the Greek fortifications occupied by the Bulgarians. Now this protocol is put forth as a consolation to the Greeks—as if the Greek people did not understand how the value of a fortification does not lie in its stones or its trenches, or its cannon, but in the secrecy of the arrangements therein. The work done for fortifying the passage through which the enemy could attempt an invasion to the very heart of Macedonia was most expensive, laborious and strategically important. There was taken every possible precaution to keep secret the details of the arrangements. Even our own military men were not allowed to approach the fortresses.

To-day the Bulgarians are there. They will return them whenever they need them no more; they will even pay indemnity. But the fortresses will be absolutely useless, if not even dangerous in the hands of the Greeks in future. The Bulgarians will know them and all about them, possibly better than we.

Venizelos, Spokesman of the Greek Liberals

An account of a speech delivered by former Premier Venizelos, on the occasion of a popular demonstration in the city of Athens, reports that statesman as saying: "If there is anyone who desires peace, it is I. But I cannot approve, by any means, a policy of peace which would bring dishonor to the state and would endanger the national hopes of Hellenism."

He reminded the people how the government that recently resigned handed over Greek fortresses to the Bulgarians, the age-

long enemies of Greece, and how the liberties of the people were gradually being annulled by the tools of spies, who were working in all the cities in Greece.

In the present European conflict [he continued] the Entente Powers, which secured the independence of Greece, reckon among their enemies the eternal enemies of Hellenism also. This fact alone would make clear the path that Greece ought to follow.

The opponents, however, of our political program attempted to draw Greece to the side of the Central Empire, i.e., of the powers which are in alliance with our eternal enemies.

You all know the means that they used and

the methods that they applied to achieve their ends, and to strangle the genuine opinion of the people. You are in a position, gentlemen, to understand what dangers the country would incur, and what a critical position would have been created for the Fatherland, if the few devotees of absolutism (or monarchical policy) were still left free to continue their efforts. If the leader of the majority in the Parliament, at any time, becomes a mere tool of the court you are in a position to imagine to what a precipice the state vessel would be led, and what a definite burial would await the popular liberties that flow from the constitution. Happily the interference of the Allies saved Greece from the horrors of a civil struggle that was threatening to burst out.

JAMES J. HILL, EMPIRE BUILDER

THE American people, and particularly those in the world of transportation and finance, were prompt to realize that the death of James J. Hill removed one of the really "great" men of modern times. It has been said of him that he was the country's foremost railway constructor, operator, and manager; that he was a marvelous financier and a supreme captain of industry; and that he was an empire builder who caused the Northwestern wilderness to blossom and become first populous and then prosperous.

A leading editorial in the *Bellman*, of Minneapolis, represents the view of those who knew Mr. Hill most intimately:

In this day and generation there has lived a giant, both in mind and soul, and we who lived with him scarcely realized it; but those who come later, to inherit all that has been made possible by his life and labors, will acknowledge him for what he was, and thus will come, in time, the saga of the Northwest, of which James Jerome Hill will be the hero, for never again in this world will come an opportunity such as his for the doing of great deeds, and, even if it should come, no man will be found to excel his mighty strokes in their accomplishment.

From the *Bellman* we derive the following facts of Mr. Hill's life and career. Born of obscure parentage in 1838, he received only a few years of education in a Canadian academy, and when but eighteen years old he made his way to St. Paul, and began his career. He was thirty-two years old when he established the first transportation line between St. Paul and Winnipeg, and at the age of forty he organized a syndicate which secured control of the St. Paul & Pacific Railroad, subsequently the St. Paul, Minneapolis & Manitoba Railway. This in 1890 became part of the Great Northern system, which was extended to reach from

Lake Superior to Puget Sound, with northern and southern branches and direct steamship connection with China and Japan. From that time on, his career as railway owner and operator, as well as financier, went rapidly and successfully forward to its culmination of far-reaching influence, world-wide fame, and a vast fortune.

Since Mr. Hill was primarily a railroad man, it is interesting to learn what successful men engaged in the same line of work thought of him. The *Railway Age Gazette* declares that "certainly there was no question in the minds of the leading railway men of the United States regarding Mr. Hill's greatness in every branch of railway management."

He was one of the very greatest railway managers that ever lived—in some important ways the greatest. He was the leading advocate, and may be said to have originated, the "tonnage" system of handling freight, which, expressed in other terms, is the system of handling it in the largest practicable trainloads. . . .

He largely increased the economy of operation and the earning capacity of every railway which he controlled. Furthermore, the application of his principles, in the development and operation of railways throughout the United States has contributed enormously toward enabling our transportation system as a whole to stand the increasing strain of advancing wages and taxes and stationary or declining rates. . . .

Mr. Hill bore the reputation of being a hard man to work for. He wanted results; he insisted on having them; he was exacting in his demands; and if his lieutenants could not get the results he wanted without working extremely hard, then work that way they must. In consequence, changes in his organization, and especially in the operating department, sometimes came with considerable frequency. But it is a significant fact that no man who ever worked under his immediate direction either stayed with him or left him without crediting him with having those almost superhuman powers of thought

and action which his achievements indicated that he possessed.

The Commercial and Financial Chronicle throws some light on the methods by which the railroad man became the empire builder:

A constructor always, he was one of the earliest men in railroading to recognize that the prime business of a railroad (especially one pushing into new territory) is as much to create stuff to carry as to carry it. Without the aid of a land grant, he made farms by teaching practical agriculture, showing men how to improve, and spurring them to improvement by an individual force which seemed self-renewing. Easy grades, heavy power, large trainload, and low rates were his transportation creed; when somebody spoke of his importation of choice foreign cattle as philanthropic he disavowed it: "Not philanthropy," he said; "more tonnage in a few years for the Great Northern." As one man has now explained his success, "By encouraging settlers, furnishing them the best seeds, showing them the best methods of culture, and importing the best breeds of cattle, he changed the wilderness into prosperous country, which, in turn, made the road prosperous and enabled it to obtain all the money necessary to extend and expand its usefulness." The educational train has been a familiar railroad instrument for many years, and in all this Mr. Hill was a pioneer.

"The secret of his character," declares the editor of the *Bellman*, "lies in the fact that James Jerome Hill was at heart a poet, one whose lines were wrought out, not in words but in deeds.

To the soul of a great poet was joined, in this



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THE LATE JAMES J. HILL

rare and unexampled instance, the master mind of a supreme executive; exact figures accompanied insight and inspiration, and an overruling and controlling element of wisdom, that instantly brought vision and prophecy into the realm of the practical and attainable, dominated his course, so that what he dreamed he ultimately made real.

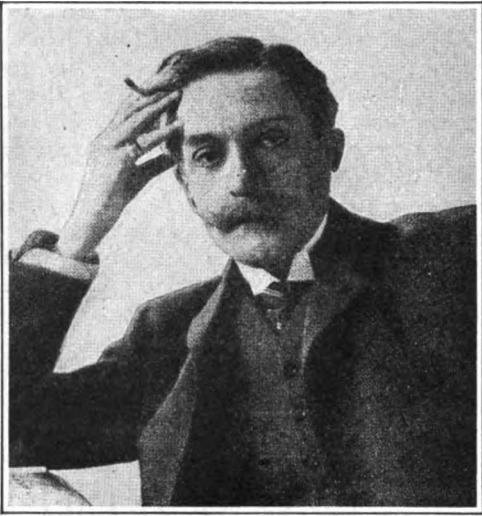
In an infinite variety of ways James Jerome Hill betrayed to those who best knew him the noble soul of a great poet: in the beautiful story of his courtship and married life, in his tenderness and deep sympathy, in his love of friends and home, in his great generosity and helpfulness, in his manifold and unostentatious charities, in his love and appreciation of art and his regard for literature, in his clean-mindedness, and, finally, in that simple belief in the goodness and mercy of his God, which sustained him through his long life.

PAUL HERVIEU, DRAMATIST AND MAN OF LETTERS

THE sudden death last October of the distinguished French dramatist, Paul Hervieu, at the early age of fifty-eight, removed from the ranks of literature one of the most notable figures of our time. The dignity and seriousness of M. Hervieu's work and its preoccupation with themes of social importance combined with the perfection of its technique to place it in the

foremost rank. Like Brioux, M. Hervieu was a propagandist, but, unlike the former, he never forgot the canons of the artist in the zeal of the reformer.

In his own words, he was of those who try to portray the inexorable pressure of the struggle for existence upon the imprudent, the weak, and those whose passions are stronger than the will to resist them. This



PAUL HERVIEU, THE FRENCH DRAMATIST

struggle of the individual against cruel conditions is manifest in most of his dramas, but particularly in the three which are accepted as the greatest, *Le Dédale*, *La Course du Flambeau* and *Les Tenaïles*. These have all been translated into English under the titles of "The Labyrinth," "The Trail of the Torch" and "The Chains" (also rendered "Enchained").

Born at Neuilly on September 2, 1857, Hervieu studied at the Lycée Condorcet, and was licensed to practise law in 1877. Though he soon abandoned a legal career, the influence of his early studies can be traced not only in the logical development of plot and of characters, and in the art of his argument and dialectic, but in his studies of the conflict between the desire and will of the individual and the desire and will of the social organism which is embodied in law. For a brief period he turned toward diplomacy for a career, and was appointed Secretary of Embassy at the French Legation in Mexico, resigning, however, in 1881, to devote himself entirely to letters. Henceforward the events in his life consist in his continued literary successes and the honors which these brought him.

These last were many and eminent. In 1900 he was elected by the French Academy to fill the chair left vacant by Pailleron, and was also elected President of the *Société des Gens de Lettre*. In 1913 he was created grand officer of the Legion of Honor.

Like so many dramatists, Hervieu began his career as a novelist. In 1882 he published *Diogène le Chien* ("Diogenes the Dog"), which, however, partakes rather of

the character of a whimsical essay. This was followed in 1884 by a work of the same character, *La Bêtise Parisienne*. Some collections of tales which followed indicated a taste for studies of morbid psychology, and this preoccupation with the conflicts of the soul was further shown in his first novel, *L'Inconnu* ("The Unknown"), in 1886. Later novels, *Flirt*, *L'Armature*, *Peints par Eux-mêmes* ("Painted by Themselves"), take the world of fashion as their milieu, with persons of wealth, rank and title as their protagonists, and base intrigue, hypocritical dissimulation and somber drama as their subject-matter. In a critical survey of his work published in *Larousse Mensuel* Félix Giraud says:

A primary characteristic trait is the absence of the picturesque; the locality, the scenery and surroundings are never treated for their own sake; they are evoked only in such measure as may aid in the comprehension of the personages who move among them, or in imparting a greater precision to the portrayal of internal sentiments. Not for an instant does Hervieu wander into those facile digressions which tempt some of our novelists; he seems actually to fear the reader may be distracted and turn his attention from the principal object of the narrative. . . .

As a moralist the dramatist is stern and austere, flaying his characters with remorseless irony, showing that an "exquisite" exterior may conceal in a man or woman of fashion vulgar ambitions, shameful compromises, unholy greed for pleasure. His first play, *Les Paroles Restent* ("Words Remain"), in 1892 dealt with the same sort of characters and environment. Its theme was the unquenchable fire kindled by an unruly tongue, and he lashes the vices of lying, calumny and delight in unsavory topics. *Les Tenaïles* (1895) and *La Loi de L'Homme* (1897) ("The Law of Man") are propagandist plays dealing with divorce. In these the author attacks the imperfections and injustice of the French code, breaking with the prejudices then existent. M. Giraud says of Hervieu's method:

In truth he restored and modernized ancient classic tragedy, with its simple action, disengaged from all secondary episode, unfolding itself in a series of logically connected scenes, and treated in a sober style. . . . There is no law, even to that of the three unities of time, place and action, he did not revive in its entire rigor in his later pieces. . . . With the exception of *Théroïque de Mericourt* (1902), in which Hervieu essayed to express a great symbolic fresco of the soul of the Revolution, the drama continues to be for him the illustration of an idea, and back of each of his plays one easily finds its thesis, scarcely dissimulated. But this thesis has

for its object henceforward not the battering of a breach in established conventions, but solely the throwing of light upon general truths of observation and the giving of profound moral lessons.

That parents always love their children more than the children love them—such is the theme of *La Course du Flambeau* (1901); that of *Le Dédale* that the woman belongs always to the first man to whom she has given herself; that the ties of family and obligations to the world form a barrier which passion cannot scale is the thesis of *Réveil* ("Awakening").

Of like genre is *Connais-toi* ("Know Thyself"), 1909. While all humanity interests this sociological dramatist, he is peculiarly occupied with the soul of woman and its

frequent struggle between duty and love. Though an individualist, like Ibsen, Hervieu does not go to the extremes of the great Scandinavian, but constantly exalts the virtues of self-control and self-sacrifice, his pure and noble idealism offering a refreshing contrast to much that is currently popular in the French theater. His last work of importance, *Bagatelle*, appeared in 1912. This, which was produced successfully at the Comédie Française, is a comedy of manners, in which the simplicity and chastity of a pure and lovely woman are contrasted with the depravity in certain circles of the highest rank.

SHOLEM ALEICHEM, THE JEWISH MARK TWAIN

THERE recently died in New York the great Yiddish humorist, Sholem Aleichem, sometimes called the "Jewish Mark Twain." Hundreds of thousands of the New York ghetto turned out to pay their last respects to the writer who had embodied in mirthful words the joys and sorrows of their old homes across the ocean. But it was in the hearts of the war-torn Jewries of Russia and Poland that the news of Sholem Aleichem's death reverberated most profoundly and painfully. For Sholem Aleichem, which means "Peace with you" (his real name was Sholem Rabinowich), was a Russian Jew, who had spent nearly all his lifetime in the Jewish "pale," and has immortalized the inhabitants of it. The war found him in western Europe, and to this country he came only for the duration of the struggle. The *Evreyskaya Zhizn* (Moscow) said editorially:

In the person of the demised there went down into his grave the greatest painter of the life of the contemporary Jew, a keen artist, who has embodied in bold relief a whole streak of Jewish silhouettes and figures, with their traditional, centuries-old modes of life, with the deep sorrows and calm, idyllic joys of that life. The new currents that have appeared in this patriarchal, firmly cemented order of things; the

painful transition to new forms of life; the lack of solid foundation, the wanderings, full of yearnings; all that has been imprinted in the kind-hearted, fine humor of Sholem Aleichem. He was the poet of the people's soul, and it is seldom that one has as much luck as he had in being understood, in becoming near and beloved to all the different classes of the Jewish people. From the most obscure corners of the Russian and Galician ghettos to the noisy New York and Buenos Aires, Sholem Aleichem's stories made hearts tremble, eyes sparkle with joy and laughter, evoking tears of mirth and sadness.



SHOLEM ALEICHEM, THE HUMORIST

In the same newspaper, Bal Machsheves, probably the foremost Yiddish literary critic, contributes a eulogy to the great Jewish humorist. He began to write in Yiddish at a time when that language had no claim to any such name, at a time when there was no Yiddish press and no Yiddish literature. Sholem Aleichem was a pioneer.

He was a champion of the tongue of the masses. He was one of the very few who have succeeded in raising that dialect, once styled "jargon," to the standard of a literary language. Sholem Aleichem witnessed the wonderful strides of the Yiddish press, he saw a periodical and permanent literature spring into existence, develop, and prosper. And he had his reward for his efforts and devotion in that cause.

No one among contemporary Jewish writers has gained as much popularity as Sholem Aleichem. The Jewish street, the *intelligentsia*, and even those Jews who read him only in translation, all loved him. Man and woman, young and old, take to Sholem Aleichem with eagerness and joy, anticipating the delectation that is to come.

There are different attitudes toward life among men of big souls: pathetic, visionary-observatory, tragic, satirical, philosophical, and humorous. The created literature of the world shows that rarer than all the other views of life is the humorous view. The number of humorists in the universal literature is very small. From Cervantes to Sholem Aleichem there will scarcely be found more than two dozen. And it is 300 years since the death of Cervantes. Sholem Aleichem was the first and only one among us. And it is no wonder why he has been unique, why he will remain our favorite for generations to come. Not only because the humorous style of writing is so rare, but also because *his* humorous style was the healthiest and most accessible style for every mind, for the very superficial as well as the most profound.

The feeling of the Russian Jews at the

news of Sholem Aleichem's death is best expressed by S. Zinberg, *Evreyskaya Nedelya* (Petrograd):

Sholem Aleichem has concluded his path of life. His contagious laughter is no more. His Kasrilovka (the typical town in Sholem Aleichem's works) has been swept away by a hurricane of blood, and its unfortunate inhabitants, driven by the maddening furies of war and human savagery, wander along the roads, in the towns and the villages of limitless Russia. And everywhere, from mouth to mouth, with profound grief there will spread the sad news, "Sholem Aleichem died!" No more is he who dispersed the dark shadows of the doleful "pale" with the rays of his laughter. Gone is the dear, kindred, beloved writer.

Sholem Aleichem was born in Poreyslav, Province of Poltava, on February 18, 1859. Most of his life he passed in Kiev. In recent years he lived in Italy, Switzerland, and Scandinavian countries. He left a wife and four children, for whom a fund of \$10,000 has been raised among the New York Jews.

INFANTILE PARALYSIS

THE serious epidemic of so-called infantile paralysis (acute anterior poliomyelitis) in New York City and the spread of the disease in other parts of the country served to call attention last month to our actual ignorance concerning the nature of this plague. Although the causative agency of the disease is not known the *Medical Record* (New York) for July 8 remarks that it is almost universally accepted that it is of germ origin. Its behavior resembles that of an acute infectious disease. Drs. Flexner and Lewis of the Rockefeller Institute and others have conducted inoculation experiments and have succeeded in passing the disease to animals, but not in finding the organism.

It was once thought that the disease was spread by the large biting stable-fly. The *Record* thinks it more probable that the ordinary house-fly is the guilty agent, yet the prevalence of poliomyelitis is not wholly confined to fly-time. The *Record* is inclined to adopt a theory that does not exclude the agency at times of the house-fly, namely, that the disease is spread in the same way as influenza or common colds. In fact, it is known that the pathogenic agent is contained in the nasal secretions of the sick.

While instances of apparently direct contagion are admittedly rare, it seems proper

to consider and to treat the disease with respect to quarantine and isolation in the same way as the other acute infections of childhood. Thus the assemblage of children in epidemic localities may well be discouraged or forbidden and the closing of moving-picture shows to children seems justified by considerations of public safety.

As to the amount of paralysis that will remain permanently after an attack of this disease, there is difficulty in making an estimate. The repair is often spread over an extended period, even as long as two years. One way in which the evil of infantile paralysis may be mitigated is by the transplantation of tendons so that the healthy muscles can do the work of the paralyzed ones.

Dr. Alexander Spingarn, of Brooklyn Borough, in a communication to the *Medical Record*, reminds us of the fact that with possibly one exception poliomyelitis has tended to prevail in New York City in epidemic type every two years since the great epidemic of 1907, with its 2,500 reported cases. There were outbreaks of the disease in New York City in 1909, 1911, and 1913, and according to this apparent law of periodicity a return of the disease was to be expected in 1915. The number of cases reported in that year, however, did not constitute an epidemic.

Dr. Spingarn found that on comparing the different wards of the borough in which the epidemic of 1911 made its ravages the number of cases in each ward was directly proportionate, not to the number of people in the ward, but to the density of the population. Also it was noticed that the epidemic of 1911 practically spared the Twenty-sixth Ward, a thickly populated district in which the disease had prevailed extensively in 1909. In other epidemics observed in different parts of the world it has been noted that communities visited by poliomyelitis in one epidemic are spared when the disease returns to the city in epidemic form. According to this law, during an epidemic there are many individuals who suffer from mild or latent types of the disease to which they are thereby rendered immune. In Brooklyn this year



Photograph by Press Illustrating Service, Inc.

BAGS OF CAMPHOR ARE HUNG ABOUT THE NECKS OF MANY CHILDREN OF NEW YORK'S "EAST SIDE"

the disease is prevalent in a section of the borough in which only a few scattered cases occurred during the previous visitations of the malady.

A PHILIPPINE VIEW OF THE JONES BILL

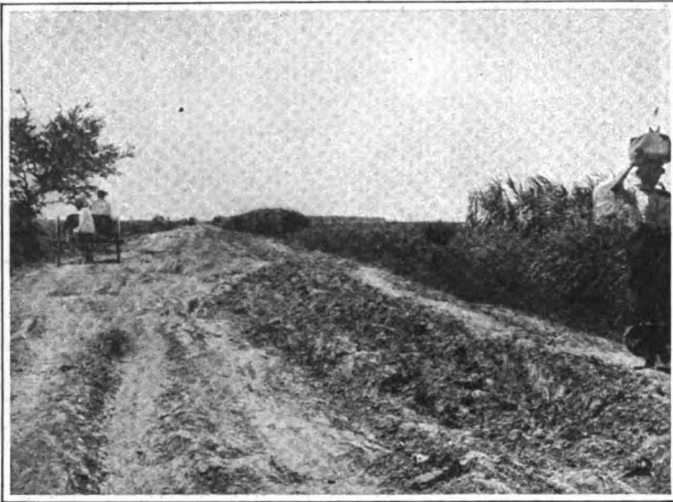
THAT the "Jones Bill" in its more liberal form would have been loyally and gratefully received by progressive Filipinos is to be gathered from a Spanish article of Hon. Rafael Palma in the *Philippine Review* (Manila).

At the outset the writer frankly denies the justice of asserting any similarity between the position of the United States in Cuba and in the Philippines. The intervention in Cuba was undertaken to put an end, once for all, to the ever-recurring disturbances on the island, and to protect our commercial interests from unbearable interruptions and disorganization. In the Philippines, on the other hand, our rule is based upon both conquest and purchase—as strong titles as can well be adduced. And yet when, after more than fifteen years of occupation, our rule is firmly established and our commerce is augmenting, the United States Government, without any external pressure, and solely moved by considerations of justice and by the aspirations of the Filipinos, has formally

registered a promise to withdraw from the islands and to give them over to the native inhabitants.

Of the wide-reaching effects of the measure as the Filipinos hoped it would be passed, Señor Palma writes:

The independence of the Filipinos under the conditions proposed in the Jones Bill represents a notable progress, the scope and results of which in the sphere of international politics may not even be understood or appreciated to-day in the United States. It signifies not only an act of reparation, an abandonment of the imperialist doctrine which constitutes the profession of faith of the great powers, but also the adoption of a new dogma that implies the renunciation of acquired rights, where these rights are not founded upon morality and justice. It signifies, moreover, the noble and loyal fulfillment of all the engagements implied in the voluntary acceptance of a trusteeship for the well-being of the Filipinos, and the inauguration of a new method for the peaceful and legal solution of the question of one people's dependence upon another. It furthermore signifies the reaffirmation of the principle enounced in the Declaration of Independence, that peoples should always be



Photograph by Press Illustrating Service, Inc.

TYPICAL CONDITION OF PHILIPPINE ROADS IN 1905

governed by their own consent, never without their consent.

While this enthusiastic reception of the measure was dictated by the expectation that it would contain more precise and definite provisions than it actually embodies, the sentiments expressed are none the less valuable and timely. Of one thing Señor Palma is fully convinced: the Americanization of the Filipinos is impossible. He finds that those who hold the contrary opinion fail to appreciate that every race has its own individuality, its traditions and habits, its political and social customs. These may, indeed, be modified and adapted to new conditions, but will persist in their essential qualities. The psychology of a people is hard to change, however much the laws, the institutions, the principles and the ideas of a ruling race may change the external aspects of the usages and customs of a subject race.

It would be impossible to Americanize the Filipinos, even if they themselves were assenting parties, but to pretend to Americanize them by force, as appears to be the idea of those who advocate the indefinite retention of the islands, would be entirely utopian, for the essential and fundamental element of any assimilation is not merely good-will, the aim to accomplish a beneficent task, but

principally the ability to inspire confidence, to gain the friendship and favor of the subject race. Hence the only way to propagate American ideals successfully is to prove worthy of those ideals—to show that the American nation is willing to respect the rights and privileges of those of another race, just as the Americans themselves demanded in the past that their own rights and privileges should be respected. Otherwise Americanism would come to mean for the Filipinos “the crucifixion of their longings for liberty, the mutilation of their hopes and ambitions to hold the key of their own destinies.”

In conclusion, Señor Palma emphasizes the fact that a prompt recognition of independence would be the surest means of strengthening the influence of the United States, since it would put an end to the doubt and distrust now prevailing, and would make the name America synonymous with that of Liberator. Everything that has already been done would gain a new significance. The American capital that has been invested would no longer be looked upon as a means of oppressing the Filipinos, but as a powerful auxiliary for the development of the country.

The American functionaries who would remain would not be considered parasites living upon the fat of the land, but would be regarded as helpers in its progress.



ROAD WITH STANDARD CROWN AND DITCH, NOW COMMON IN THE PHILIPPINES

MENTAL AND PHYSICAL TESTS FOR AVIATORS

THE fitness of a would-be aviator to take up a career in the flying corps of an army depends peculiarly on the psychophysiological aptitudes of the subjects. Very ingenious methods of determining these aptitudes have recently been worked out by two French physicians, Dr. Jean Camus and Dr. Nepper, at the instance of Dr. Marchoux, *Médecin-Chef* at Paris. The methods employed by these learned biologists and the results obtained are described by Jacques Boyer in *La Nature* (Paris).

MM. Camus and Nepper begin by measuring the time of psycho-motor reactions by means of the d'Arsonval chronometer; in other words, by determining what fraction of a second is required for the subject to react after having received a visual, tactile, or auditory impression. It is easy to understand the practical importance of these factors in the domain of military aviation. Let us suppose a soldier on board an aeroplane. He has just discovered, for example, a machine-gun which had been masked by some feature of the terrain. How long will it take him to execute a maneuver to avoid shell or shrapnel? If a violent wind suddenly menaces the security of his machine, how many movements will it take him to prepare for ascending out of the dangerous atmospheric zone?

Without going into the technical details given by M. Boyer, it may be stated briefly that the d'Arsonval chronometer consists of a clockwork which causes a needle to revolve around a dial divided into 100 divisions at the speed of one revolution per second. The motion of this needle or hand may be stopped by closing an electric circuit with which it is connected. When it is desired to test auditory time-reactions with this instrument the observer seats himself facing the subject and, holding in his hand a small hammer, by means of which he makes a sound by striking it on an empty box and which at the same time opens the circuit, thus causing the needle to revolve;

as soon as he hears the sound the candidate closes the circuit by means of a press-button and thus stops the revolution of the needle.

To determine tactile sensations the observer touches the head or hands of the subject lightly with the same hammer, while for visual sensations they merely press gently the hammer placed on the table; the needle then begins to revolve and the subject stops



APPARATUS FOR MEASURING TIME REQUIRED FOR REACTIONS AFTER VISUAL, TACTILE OR AUDITORY IMPRESSIONS

it as soon as he perceives its movement. The average of ten tests of good subjects gave the following figures:

For auditive or sensitive psycho-motor reactions 14/100 second, and 19/100 for those of visual origin. The observers, on the other hand, considered as unfit for aeronautic service those young men whose reaction times were considerably slower than this. Thus some subjects had reaction times varying from 17/100 to 33/100 second for auditory impressions, 20/100 to 39/100 second for tactile sensations, and 22/100 to 48/100 second for visual perceptions.

The experimenters also sought to determine the influence of emotions on respiratory and cardiac rhythm, on the vaso-motor system and on the nervous response indicated by tremor, employing apparatus familiar in the laboratories of experimental physiology. The subject, after having his chest surrounded by a pneumograph, places in one of his hands the "Hallion and Conte indicator" and in the other the Verdin apparatus for detecting trembling. He seats himself near a table on which is a Marey registering cylinder provided with its clockwork mechanism and three "inscription drums."

A rubber tube connects each of these with the pneumograph, the indicator and the Verdin tremor instrument and transmits their variations to them. The corresponding points then inscribe on the smoked paper which covers the cylinder . . . the movements of the chest, the

cardiac rhythm, the vaso-motor modifications and the degree of tremor. The tests consist in firing a revolver near the candidate, exploding magnesium in his proximity, placing a piece of linen dipped in cold water on a bare portion of the skin, and inscribing the curves on the Marey cylinder. The graphics measure the intensity of the reactions as well as the duration of the nervous disturbance provoked.

Finally, Professor Camus has devised a dynamo-ergograph to study the degree of "fatigue ability" caused by small and large motions of the arms, especially the prehensile strength of the hand.

In a good subject the discharge of the gun scarcely modifies the respiratory rhythm, there is no trembling either before or after, and no vaso-motor modification. In a bad subject the breathing is disturbed, nervous tremor is intensified, and a typical vaso-constriction is produced in the organism.

HAS RUSSIA A NEW TOLSTOY?

THE May issue of the *Russkaya Mysl* (Moscow), a leading Russian monthly, contains a remarkable review of a story that had been published in Russia some months ago. The author of the story is Ivan Alexievitch Bunin, a well-known Russian poet, and its title is "The Gentleman from San Francisco." It is perhaps no exaggeration to say that no other story that has appeared in Russia in recent years has been accorded such a warm welcome as "The Gentleman from San Francisco." And this is the more remarkable when one considers that Bunin is by no means a young or unknown figure on the Russian literary field. His reputation as a poet of high quality was made long ago. He is now in his late forties. In 1912 the honorary degree of Academician was conferred upon him, and during the last twenty-five years Russian critics have had opportunity to study Bunin's literary powers and to learn their potentialities and limits. This, however, did not prevent him from taking the literary world by storm with his latest production.

The *Bulletin of Literature and Life*, a monthly of high literary standard, was the first to break to the Russian world in a recent issue the news that Bunin's new story is nothing like any of his former works. As soon as attention was attracted to it, the periodical press began to write about it, commending "The Gentleman from San Fran-

cisco" in glowing and enthusiastic terms. It became clear to the Russian public that Bunin was just entering his Golden Era, that the creative genius of the poet had just found itself, and that the numerous literary productions of Bunin constituted but the ladder of gradual self-perfection that led him to the apogée of his career. And it is in this spirit that A. Derman, a noted critic, writing in the *Russkaya Mysl*, hails Bunin as a new Tolstoy.

More than ten years separate us from the last of Tchekhoff's creations, and in this period, if we should exempt all the works of Tolstoy that have appeared after his death, there has not appeared in the Russian language a work of art equal in force and import to the story, "The Gentleman from San Francisco."

After reading "The Gentleman from San Francisco" one is prompted against his will to exclaim to Bunin, "Thou hast conquered, Galilean!" I am writing this with great joy, for how can one not be glad when one sees an artist, through persistent systematic work on the perfection of his talent, and without turning traitor to his own ideals, suddenly make a stride of gigantic proportions forward.

"The Gentleman from San Francisco" compels one to seek analogy between Bunin and L. N. Tolstoy, and I say this with the full knowledge of my responsibility for these words. . . . The similarity of the story by Bunin to some of the works of Tolstoy cannot be doubted and is very characteristic of it. (Of course there can be no talk of imitation here.) That similarity can be detected both in the plot of "The Gentleman from San Francisco" and in its execution, its style, and its moral meaning.

READING MATTER FOR SOLDIERS

THE definition of man as "a reading animal" has never received a more striking confirmation than is furnished by the eagerness of the men engaged in the present war for all sorts of printed matter. In spite of all the tendencies towards reversion to the primitive barbarian, or even savage state caused by the clash of interests and passions on the battlefield, the modern man remains modern in his insistent demand for intellectual food and mental stimulation. In the European countries this demand is being met by really Herculean exertions and the expenditure of vast amounts of money as well as of personal effort. Since a call has already gone out for books and papers for our own troops on the border it is of interest to learn something of what has been done abroad.

In England the Fighting Forces Book Council, the Camps Library, and the Y. M. C. A. have collected and distributed really stupendous amounts of material. The latter, which began with a modest and almost despairing hope of collecting \$15,000 for the work, has obtained between two and three million dollars, according to the *Lyceum* (London) for May, and spends daily about \$3000 to keep its huts and other activities going. Vast masses of old books and old magazines have been contributed, the lighter variety being in great preponderance, according to a speaker at a dinner recently given in London in honor of the Fighting Forces Book Council. But while such light stuff is eagerly read for relaxation there is a remarkably large and steady demand for serious books of every sort, and this not only among officers and university men but among working men. Thus a number of men belonging to the Workers' Educational Association in England had been taking definite courses in such subjects as political economy and even psychology, and these wished to pursue their studies as far as possible while at the front. One man wished to do a little research in astronomy; history naturally is in great demand, and poetry is likewise called for in surprising amount.

In Germany there has been a similar highly organized effort to provide brain-food for the men at the front. The *Hamburger Fremdenblatt* stated recently that 100,000 books had been furnished the prisoners of war in Russia alone, adding that since the war-libraries were established more than

250,000 books and more than 80,000 periodicals had been gratuitously distributed to soldiers at the front, in hospital, and in prison camps, while last Christmas 40,000 books were sent as gifts to poor and friendless men on the fighting lines.

A careful analysis of the sort of reading done by men at the front in intervals of active duty has been made by a learned German, Dr. V. Franz, and appeared lately in *Die Umschau* (Frankfort). He considered the subject matter under four heads—newspapers, periodicals, tracts, and books. Many men take their own local paper, but papers are passed from hand to hand and Dr. Franz counts as one of the indirect benefits of the war the intellectual broadening obtained by rustics and villagers through the opportunity of reading the big metropolitan dailies of Berlin, Leipzig, Hamburg, Munich, etc. He says:

Every soldier follows with special zeal the accounts in the newspaper of the events of the war—maps, too, are studied for comparison, wherever they can be obtained—and the more general observations on the current war situation; furthermore, the debates in Parliament. War correspondents' reports rouse much less interest. . . . The villager and small townsman is naturally interested in local and family news. The instructive and entertaining part of the paper is read with divided interest.

Dr. Franz found that the periodical literature of first-class weeklies and monthlies was not much read at the front—however it may be in hospital, and at the rear—with the exception of the more sensational illustrated journals, and the comic papers. Certain military journals are also much read. Among tracts he reckons brief publications of irregular appearance and uplifting nature, teaching of religion, patriotism, etc. Song-books also come under this category. These were provided in profusion early in the war but are now less in evidence. Many religious sheets are received also, by church members. Under this head Dr. Franz takes occasion to deplore the objectional medical literature sent to the troops. Finally he discourses on the books read:

The soldier reads all the novels, narratives, and short stories he can get hold of. . . . The few books of scientific content in the field libraries—natural science, philosophy, history, and histories of art and literature—are, indeed, in constant use, but presumably most by those

who were interested in these subjects at home.

Whatever the soldier wins for himself in the intellectual domain remains a life possession.

Thus the beneficent effect of good German literature is a large element in the powerful cultural influence which the war in general represents.
(Censored at Frankfurt.)

ITALY'S MERCHANT MARINE PROBLEM

ITALY has been sharply reminded of her lack of freighters by the ever-increasing difficulty she experiences in bringing to her shores the coal, grain, and cotton of which she is so greatly in need. In time of peace, when an abundance of foreign ships can usually be chartered at reasonable rates, it may seem to be a matter of comparative indifference whether the merchandise is conveyed in native or foreign bottoms; when, however, the principal maritime nations are engaged in a deadly conflict, taxing their resources in this respect to the uttermost, each has need of all the ships at its command, and a foreign nation is forced to pay inordinate freight charges, even for merchandise conveyed by the ships of an ally.

An article on this subject in *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), by Signor Tomaso Mosca, of the Italian Chamber of Deputies, gives some valuable details and considerations regarding the matter. He notes that the enormous rise in the price of wheat and coal in Italy, at a time when all the sea routes are open to Italian commerce, and when these commodities can be bought in the American or English markets at but slightly higher than average prices, makes Italians appreciate to what a shameful and perilous state of servitude their country has been reduced. Nor is it possible for the Italians, in such abnormal times, to find any effectual remedy for the refusal or the exorbitant pretensions of foreign ship-owners, unless they are willing to regard it as a proper and honorable remedy, to have recourse to the benevolence of friendly states, and to invoke from them provisions in Italy's favor and against the interests of their own citizens; for neither can ships be built in a day, nor has the Italian Government the power to requisition foreign vessels or subject them to a minimal tariff.

The writer finds that an end must be put to this dangerous state of things, immediately the war shall have closed, since the problem is one of vital importance for Italy. The time for discussions and recriminations has passed; it is necessary to act, and money must be found for the building or acquisition of the necessary ships in a brief space

of time and according to a concrete technical and financial plan. To persist in the present inertia would be a grave fault for the Italian Government and for the Italian Parliament. The mercantile marine must be so increased as to raise its carrying capacity from 1,000,000 tons to 2,500,000 tons; that is to say, to the minimum requisite for transporting annually to Italy the 14,000,000 tons or more of merchandise absolutely essential to the country's welfare. This covers 3,000,000 tons of coal for public services, about 7,000,000 tons of coal for the great industries, more than 2,500,000 tons of wheat, corn, and other cereals, and about 2,000,000 tons of cotton, metals, and other indispensable raw materials. Signor Mosca believes that this aim can be realized by an enactment conceived in the following terms:

I.—There shall be formed in Rome an anonymous society for the maritime transport of merchandise, with a capital of \$100,000,000, divided into 500,000 shares of 1000 lire (\$200) each.

Its object is to provide for the construction, acquisition, and renovation, and operation of ships for the transport of merchandise to a total carrying capacity of at least 1,500,000 tons.

II.—In the constitution of the requisite capital the state shall contribute \$40,000,000, subscribing for 200,000 shares, the right to subscribe for the remaining 300,000 shares being reserved to the public.

III.—On subscription there shall be paid in, as well by the state as by individual subscribers, two-tenths of the nominal value of each share. The remaining eight-tenths of the subscription shall be paid in during four successive years, at the rate of two-tenths each year. All the shares shall be nominative.

The transfer of freighters to the company by private interests shall be permitted at their actual value. Such transfers shall result in a corresponding increase in the company's capital and of the shares belonging to private parties.

IV.—At the end of each year no distribution of profits shall be made until it shall have been rigorously ascertained that the capital has been paid in as required. However, upon the 200,000 shares subscribed for by the state no dividends shall be declared until the shares subscribed for by private parties shall have received five per cent. of the amount paid in. Whenever five per cent. shall have been declared upon all the shares, the surplus of the net profits remaining is to be distributed in such manner that each one of the shares subscribed for by private parties shall receive double the amount assigned to those subscribed for by the state.

SHAKESPEARE AS NATURE-LOVER AND AS HEALER

EVERYONE who has been to Stratford-on-Avon, or who has read of the exceptional beauty of the English Midlands, the lowlying plains, the sweeping hills that roll in gentle undulations up from the vales, the slow-moving Avon bordered with the luxuriant fringe of marsh lilies and rushes, the wealth of natural wild flowers, will not search farther for the source of the side of the character of William Shakespeare, that was the ardent nature lover. The *Scientific Monthly* for June contains an article by O. D. von Engeln, entitled "Shakespeare The Observer of Nature," that lifts this particular aspect of the "many-sided Shakespeare" into high relief.

Editors in general express their amazement at Shakespeare's wonderful and accurate knowledge in natural science. Yet it is doubtful whether they collectively appreciate how wonderful this really was. They compare Shakespeare's observations with those of modern scientists and note that these agree. They judge Shakespeare's natural history in the same manner that they would that of a modern novelist and find it more than simply trustworthy. What this means can only be made apparent by an inquiry into the degree of progress in natural science that had been made up to his time.

The appreciation of Alexander Pope declared of Shakespeare that:

Whatever object of nature . . . he speaks of or describes, it is always with competent if not with extensive knowledge; his descriptions are still exact, all his metaphors appropriated and remarkably drawn from the true nature and inherent quality of each object.

Mr. von Engeln writes that this appreciation applies in its fullest force to Shakespeare's knowledge of birds, and that his accurate information concerning the varieties of land birds of the Warwickshire country and the seabirds often driven inland by heavy southwest gales as far as the Avon, was supplemented by the knowledge that arose from the great vogue of the sport of falconry in those days.

Mr. J. E. Harting, a British ornithologist, writes:

In Shakespeare's time every one who could afford it kept a hawk, and the rank of the owner was indicated by the species of bird he carried. To a king belonged the gerfalcon; to a prince the falcon gentle, to an earl the peregrine,

to a lady, the merlin; to a young squire, the hobby; while a yeoman carried a goshawk; a priest, a sparrowhawk; and knave or servant a kestrel.

In the plays themselves there are many direct allusions to falconry:

As confident as is the falcon's flight
Against a bird!

—"Rich. II.," A. I., s. 3, l. 61.

he exclaims, and in "King Henry VI." we have the old sportsman's chronic failing, his fondness for patronizing comments—expressed by Cardinal Beaufort:

Believe me, cousin Gloucester,
Had not your man put up the fowl so suddenly,
We had had more sport.

—"H. VI.," Pt. 2, A. II., s. 1, l. 45 et seq.

Also he finds occasion to mention many birds: the eagle, buzzard, osprey, the different kinds of owls, the pelican, crow, raven and woodpecker, the magpie, jay, thrush, blackbird and bunting, the cuckoo, robin, sparrow, wren, the dove and the partridge. Besides these there are the birds distinctively mentioned as flown at, the lapwing, the woodcock and snipe, wild geese and duck. Of distinctly sea birds the guillemot and the cormorant are cited.

Some of the most fascinating passages in Shakespeare are the conceits about insects. For instance, the description of the Chariot of Queen Mab:

Her chariot is an empty hazelnut
Made by the joiner squirrel or old grub,
Time out o' mind the fairies' coach-makers.
(Its) . . . wagon-spokes made of long spinner's
legs

The cover, of the wings of grasshoppers
The traces, of the smallest spider's web.
Her whip, of cricket's bone; the lash of film;
Her waggoner, a small grey-coated gnat.

—"R. and J.," A. I., s. 4, l. 60, etc.

Concerning trees, it is easy to remember:

There is a willow grows aslant a brook
That shows his hoar leaves in the glassy stream.
—"Hamlet." Act IV., s. 7, l. 167-8.

Only the under side of the willow's leaves are hoar; again Shakespeare's statement is perfectly exact. In the "Rape of Lucrece" we have

The cedar stoops not to the base shrub's foot
But low shrubs wither at the cedar's root.

—"Lucrece," l. 664-5.

When one comes to the consideration of Shakespeare's delight in flowers, there are passages that will spontaneously come to mind, "I know a bank where wild thyme grows," and the speech of Perdita in the Winter's Tale, and the lovely lines from the fifth act of "Love's Labor Lost":

O Proserpina!

For the flowers now that frightened thou let'st fall
From Dis's waggon! daffodils,
That come before the swallow dares, and take
The winds of March with beauty; violets dim,
But sweeter than the lids of Juno's eyes
Or Cytherea's breath; pale primroses,
That die unmarried, ere they can behold
Bright Phoebus in his strength, a malady
Most incident to maids; bold oxlips and
The crown imperial; lilies of all kinds
The flower-de-luce being one.

—Act IV., s. 3, l. 116 et seq.

When daisies pied and violets blue
And lady-smocks all silver white
And cuckoo buds of yellow hue
Do paint the meadows with delight.

L. L. L. Act V.

Mr. von Engeln concludes that the nature notes sprinkled throughout the work of the great bard, show how intimately the nature-lover was associated with the poet in the art of Shakespeare. And that while these passages please us with their art, they strike down to the deeply hidden roots of the inner reason of things, and reveal Shakespeare in the role of the man of science, the keen observer of facts.

"Shakespeare as a Health Teacher"

In the same issue of the *Scientific Monthly*, James Frederick Rogers, M.D., writes of Shakespeare the physician. While his age would not have bestowed recognition upon him as a "doctor of physic," Mr. Rogers maintains that he was and is a great healer, a teacher of "mental and bodily sanity."

In "Henry the Fourth" (1597-1598) Shakespeare exhibits considerable knowledge of medical matters, Falstaff furnishing the material of his public clinic. He pictures accurately the bodily changes of senility; he mentions apoplexy, the gout, the pox (syphilis), and epilepsy; and in speaking of grief as leading to apoplexy he makes Falstaff say, "I have read the cause of its effects in Galen." The remark of Prince Henry

With If he be sick
With joy, he will recover without physic,
shows his observation of the effects of mental states on bodily, and vice versa.

Shakespeare's interest in "physic" and his intimacy with physicians may have been simultaneous; perhaps the latter preceded the former.

His opinion of the average doctor of the day is presented in probably a not much exaggerated way in his Doctor Caius, in "The Merry Wives of Windsor," about the year 1600. This and the plays of the next four years are full of fun and sarcasm at the expense of the profession, with little hint that there might be in it any but charlatans and ignoramuses.

Will you cast away your child on a fool and a physician?

He hath abandoned his physicians, madam; under whose practises he hath persecuted time with hope.

Throw physic to the dogs. I'll none of it.

Sir Toby.

Sot, did'st see Dick Surgeon, sot?

Clown.

O, he's drunk, Sir Toby, an hour ago; his eyn were set at eight i' the morning.

These were not expressions wholly respectful to the learned practitioners of medicine and surgery.

In "Troilus and Cressida" he again shows much familiarity with the bodily ailments of the age. By the time he wrote "Lear" and "Macbeth" (1605) he had evidently come upon more worthy material in the medical profession. The doctors of these plays are large-minded, sympathetic, and unhampered by tradition, above all exhibiting keen appreciation of the phenomena of mental aberration and a readiness to admit the fact that

. . . this disease is beyond my practise.

It was not the habit of the majority of the doctors of physic to admit that they could not cure insanity, or anything else, by some material means. Shakespeare recommends for such patients rest, sleep, and a removal of "the means of all annoyance"; his decision concerning Lady Macbeth,

More needs she the divine than the physician,

foreshadows, by three centuries, the general popular and professional agitation concerning the value of mental treatment of nervous disorders."

The author wonders if Shakespeare was familiar with the work of his contemporary, Cervantes, who made his hero, Don Quixote, say to Sancho Panza: "The health of the whole body is tempered in the laboratory of the stomach," inasmuch as Shakespeare calls attention more than once to the evils of gluttony and intemperance":

Fat stomachs have lean pates, and dainty bits
Make rich the ribs, but bankrupt quite the wits.

Falstaff is, in himself, an eloquent sermon on temperance.

Drunkenness received no gentle rebuke from Shakespeare's pen.

What's a drunken man like, fool?

asks Olivia of Feste in "Twelfth Night" (1601).

Like a drowned man, a fool and a madman.
One draught above heat makes him a fool; the
second mads him; and a third drowns him.

and in "Othello," Cassio bewails at length the folly of his intemperance.

Oh God, that men should put an enemy in their mouths to steal away their brains! that we should, with joy, pleasance, revel, and applause, transform ourselves into beasts! . . . To be now a sensible man, by and by a fool, and presently a beast! O strange! Every inordinate cup is unblest, and the ingredient is a devil.

In "Pericles," there is a portrait of Shakespeare's ideal physician. Mr. Rogers suggests that he may have had in mind his son-in-law, John Hall, but "Shakespeare himself was most worthy of the lines":

..... 'Tis known, I ever
Have studied physic. Through which secret art,
By turning o'er authorities, I have
(Together with my practise) made familiar
To me and to my aid, the blessed infusions
That dwell in vegetatives, in metals, stones;
And I can speak of the disturbances
That Nature works, and of her cures; which doth
give me

A more content in course of true delight
Than to be thirsty after tottering honour,
Or tie my treasure up in silken bags
To please the fool and death.

Though he died at fifty-two, Shakespeare had, according to the reckoning of Montaigne, a quarter-century earlier reached, for that time, a good old age. Probably had it not been for some unavoidable cause, his superior physique, his appreciation of health, and his temperance would have preserved him many years more. He had, however, completed his work, for he had ceased to write, so far as we know, two years before his end.

He would not have considered himself a physician, but in the most important sense of being a teacher of health he stands among the first of that goodly company of non-professionals: Plato, Cervantes, Molière, Montaigne, Bacon, Locke, Addison, Wesley, Franklin, Carlyle, Beecher, Spencer, and others who, by both precept and practise, have been our greatest preachers of the gospel of health. As a minister to the mind, and, through it, to the fragile machinery through which it works, he has no peer.

POETRY, FORMAL AND "FREE"

"WHAT Do We Mean by Poetry?" is the title of a singularly interesting and able article in the current issue of *The Unpopular Review* (New York). Or, rather, the author inquires, what do we *have* to mean by it, since usage, rather than our impertinent wills, determines, and we have to in a way mean what it means? As a second part of this question—which would we like always to mean by poetry: verse that is a definite pattern, something which is not a form at all and appears in many other forms than in that of verse, or only such verse as we feel is also poetry? The best definitions of poetry have approximated the idea that poetry is "creation in literature." The writer calls attention to the fact that poet is a Greek word meaning "maker," that the French "*trouvere*" and "*troubadour*" meant finder or discoverer, and that Whittman suggested the word "answerer."

"There is no joy but in creation," cried Remy de Gourmont, who alas will create for us no more. "There are no living things but those who create; all the joys of life are joys of creation. To create in the region of the body, or in the region of the mind, is to issue forth from the prison of the body; it is to ride upon the storm of life; it is to be He who Is. To create is to triumph over death."

Joubert's "Poetry is but the waking dreams of a wise man," is the saying of a delicate and

thoughtful critic, but Shakespeare's poetry "gives to airy nothing a local habitation and a name," is the saying of one who lived closer to the phenomenon. The universe has been called "the poetry of God," who is thought of as having shaped it out of chaos, a living entity out of a formless void, space out of infinity, time out of eternity, and something localized and named out of the inconceivable God-alone knows what. We do not know of what our imaginations are compact—of what myriad blended associations that lie below consciousness, dark beneath dark. Rhythm has its roots far down that subconscious ocean, and can "call spirits from the vasty deep." The confusion in our critical vocabulary is incurable, but the consolation is that this inseparable overlapping and blending of terminology corresponds to an inseparable overlapping and blending of the original phenomena.

The author gleans from his discussion three propositions that are applicable to the present discussion of *vers libre*. These are:

First Theorem: Poetry as creative literature is not a form, but an inner power, which is always however a shaping power and always develops a form. Whatever manifests this power is thereby justified, and calling it poetry or verse, or refusing those terms, or whether properly doing so or not, does not affect the thing. The granting or refusal is a question of the meaning of terms, not of the character of a thing, which is felt and known directly and not through the medium of terms.

Second Theorem: Verse with recognizably recurring beats and familiar rhythms has at least two deep-seated values, which probably caused its early predominance in literature and are as genuine as ever. First, it is a pattern, and a

pattern is not a hindrance, but a help, to good writing; second, it echoes and answers to fundamental factors in our emotional make-up.

Third Theorem: The best classifications are according to the most significant values.

The prophecy made for the poetry of the twentieth century has not so much to do with form as with content. The poets may or may not write *vers libre*, but they will have come closer to truth and found a firm grip on the essentials of human life; they will have vision and "carry the banners of the century's social history."

The author's principal feeling about *vers libre* is that it is often ineffective, because, while it is not formless in theory, it is often fumbling in practise.

To put it personally again, the dominant impression I gain from reading most *vers libre* is of its futility, its uncertainty and fumbling. It is not as good writing as the average of current verse in conventional patterns. *Vers libre* is not rhythmically formless in theory, but it is apt to be in practice, for however clear to the writer may seem his rhythmic design, it is apt to seem to the reader all variation and no type, and "all variation and no type" is a definition of chaos. It is not denying values in Miss Lowell's work of vivid imagination, or choice phrasing, or skill in portraiture or contrast, to say that her rhythmic values would be better if they were more effectively communicated.

A Defense of Free Verse

Miss Amy Lowell defends the theory and practise of the new poetry in a trenchant article in the July number of the *Craftsman* (New York). "Has America a National Poetry? Is there a national spirit in the new poetry?" she asks, and then proceeds to explain that we have at last had the courage to break away from the leading-strings of the Victorian poets and infuse nationality into our poetry. This courage she attributes to different causes. Principal among these are the effects of the tides of immigration, which have inoculated us with Latin and Celtic genius, and the constant travel of Americans in France and Italy, where their original thought was modified by the freedom and the fire of the genius of the south of Europe.

If the new poetry startles us, it is because it gives truthful reactions:

It is small wonder that people brought up in the old conventions, blind and deaf to the great changes going on all about them, should find themselves nonplussed by the originality and strangeness of the New Poetry. It is an old platitude that nothing is so strange as truth. If a man looks into his own soul and writes down what he finds there, he himself will be startled

by its unlikeness to what he expected. To be absolutely sincere about one's reactions is as difficult in art as in life. For a country long in leading strings to break them and possess itself of its own extended orbit requires high courage and a great impulse and necessity. That we have so many entirely American poets today is a proof of that courage and that impulse.

They find that beauty is not chained upon the other side of the Atlantic, that it is here at their own doors. That the Singer Building is an achievement to be proud of and one need not sigh because we are not evolving Parthenons; that the Yankee farmer is as interesting as the Wessex yokel; and that sun, and rain, and cloud are as lyric here as over the orchards of Normandy.

It is a great deal to have discovered that. And the New Poetry, the New Painting, the New Music are making such discoveries every day. The artists of the older countries have always written about the things among which they lived, in the way that best suited them. Our artists are only just beginning to dare to be themselves. And the New Poetry is blazing a trail toward nationality far more subtle and intense than any settlement houses and waving of the American flag in schools can ever achieve. I might say with perfect truth that the most national things we have are skyscrapers, ice-water, and the New Poetry, and each of these means more than appears on the surface.

Miss Lowell thinks that when the critics have learned to understand the really permanent qualities of the American character, they will come nearer to an appreciation of the new poetry.

The American is a highly nervous race, quick, impatient, energetic. Do we not find all these qualities in a marked degree in the New Poetry?

The American race is a profoundly unsentimental one. Hard-headed, money-making, our enemies call us. But there is a difference between sentiment and sentimentality. Of sentiment, strong, almost stern, the New Poetry has an abundance, but the sentimentality of Longfellow's "Children's Hour" is gone. The modern American does not express himself in that way because he does not feel in that way.

Again, we are not a race prone to religious hysteria; we shall search in vain through the pages of the New Poets for devotional poetry as such. We are materialists in a strange, joyful way—loving the things we can see, and hear, and taste, and touch, and smell. So these verses are full of scenes and objects, of beauties—Nature's, Art's—of preoccupation with the things all about us.

The American is a decidedly clear and logical thinker, hence so many instances of uncompromising realism in his verse. Also, the poet is human, and is ahead of his time, for which reason this "dour" realism is the natural reaction of an active, probing mind from the "Glad Book" tendencies evinced by a large portion of the American public.

The American is as quivering with life as a taut bow, and this lack of repose is one of the reasons why his "forte" is clearly not the sensuous, undulating line of pure melody.

THE NEW BOOKS

SOME RECENT VERSE—AMERICAN, BRITISH, AND FRENCH

THE Princeton University Press has published "A Book of Princeton Verse,"¹ which compares favorably with collections of poetry gathered from wider sources and also with the English anthologies of college verse, such as the Oxford volume of undergraduate rhymes edited by Gilbert Murray. The Princeton anthology contains seventy poems written on the campus during the last six years, chiefly the work of undergraduates who are still in residence. One or two of the contributors are students in the Graduate College and one is now "somewhere in France." Mr. Alfred Noyes has written the preface and edited the volume. He quotes the poem of a young Princeton poet, Maxwell Struthers Burt, '12, as an example of the fine spirit inculcated at the University. The poet hears the drums calling the army of young men to high endeavor. A few lines culled from the poem will show the quality of the poetry and also of the mind that created it.

"Attend, O Lord of Visions, to our prayer!
May we know pain, O God, may we know pain
And pave with blood and tears our way,
Along the old forgotten path again
To find the sweet strength of a younger day.

Only for moments does it seem
That we have lost the splendor of our dream
We know, had we but time to heed or hush the
whisperings of greed,
That stirring, pulsing, throbbing, slow,
Implacable would rise the tread
Of the stern, ever-marching army of the dead.
We—we are still the visioned great-souled
breed;
Not like the older nations from decay
Not wearily we sin,
But heedless, reckless children at play
Straying, we have a little lost our way,
Nor see as yet the darkness folding in
Aye—for in the end sore, torn and bruised, we
Like long-lost children, will return to Thee;
Like coast-born children weary for the sea."

The high level of excellence maintained in the anthology should encourage those who are doubtful of the fostering of the creative faculty in American universities. These poems have imagination, originality, lucidity, and proportion; they reveal minds fertilized by inspiration and a generous quickening of the literary sense. Twenty-five young men are represented in the volume. With one or two exceptions they have not attempted the newer forms of verse, but have clung to the older accepted standards of form.

Harrington Green's gay verses bubble with youth and irresponsibility. This talented young poet died three years ago. His poems are shortly to be gathered into a volume. The poems of

John Peale Bishop have color and fine imagery, and smooth music of line. "One Side of the Medal," by William Brewer Connett, is terse and comprehensive of both sides of the labor question. Charles Francis MacDonald contributes a strong and original group of poems. "There's Rosemary" has music and magic and a precocious maturity of thought.

In many poems there is the expression of the influence of the external aspects of Princeton, the ordered beauty and symmetry of the buildings and their natural surroundings; the nobility of the ensemble has sunk deep into the minds of these young men. "Princeton: February, 1916," by Edmund Wilson, Jr., is particularly pleasing:

"She sleeps like some old town with guarded
gate.

Was ever football quick or shouting shrill?
Her lazy laughter drowns; it is late;
The windows darken and the streets are still.

Outside the frozen air which no bells break
Of nasal clangor or of fragile chime,
Only to speed the Winter, faint clocks wake,
Lest we may fear his finger upon Time.

Our town is dark with struggle; fierce and sweet
We catch the echoing of eager cries,
As generations press along the street,
Young and half-seeing with bewildered eyes."

"Poems of War and Peace,"² by Robert Underwood Johnson, has a pleasing objectivity. "Gothals of Panama" and "The Corridors of Congress," ring with the vitality of true Americanism. Mr. Johnson appreciates with Whitman that the process of building a nation is a theme most worthy of a poet's pen. Among the war poems of this fine collection are "Edith Cavell," "Rheims," "The Haunting Face," "Embattled France," and "The Cost." The last section of the book is devoted to poems of friendship and admiration. "Reading Horace," the tribute to Karl Bitter, and "A Song of Parting" are particularly happy of phrase and rhythm. This volume will meet with instant appreciation from all lovers of dignified poetry, serene in its idealism, gracious in its acceptance of life, and firm in the purpose to make the best of things as they are.

"April Airs,"³ by Bliss Carman, brings us New England clasped in tuneful lyrics. The beauty of the rugged shores, the quaint towns, the upland pastures, the forests, rocks, and streams,

¹ A Book of Princeton Verse. Edited by Alfred Noyes. Princeton University Press. 187 pp. \$1.25.

² Poems of War and Peace. By Robert Underwood Johnson. Bobbs-Merrill. 57 pp. \$1.

³ April Airs. By Bliss Carman. Small, Maynard. 77 pp. \$1.

birds, bees and flowers and seasons, is shaped in singing cadences that linger long in the mind. Everyone who loves the Northeastern seaboard will appreciate the feeling the poet expresses for the tedious New England winters.

"The scarlet robe of autumn
Renounced and put away,
The mystic earth is fairer still
A Puritan in grey.
The spirit of the winter
How tender, how austere;
Yet all the ardor of the spring
And summer's dream are here."

Some of the best poetry that has been inspired by events of the war is contained in a volume entitled "A Song of the Guns," by Gilbert Frankau. The divisions of the "song" are entitled "The Voice of the Slaves," "Headquarters," "Gun-Teams," "Eyes in the Air," "Signals," "The Observers," "Ammunition Column," and "The Voice of the Guns."

The poems were jotted down by the author during a lull in the bombardment of artillery in the battle of Loos in Flanders, where he was attached to an artillery brigade. After the battle of Loos the brigade was ordered to Ypres, and there during the ensuing trench warfare the work was completed. The last three stanzas were written at brigade headquarters with the German shells screaming over the ruins of the town. It is a remarkable piece of realism. The "guns" are pictured as the masters, the gunners serfs, who are proud of serfdom. The whole horror of artillery warfare has been packed into metrical stanzas without destroying a dominant sense of the lyrical quality of as horrible a thing as an artillery bombardment. The picture of the "Gun-Teams," the patient horses that suffer and die with the guns, is remarkable for its pictorial quality; "Eyes in the Air" is the cry of the aeroplane "hawks that guide the gun"; "Signals" gives the feeling of the men who press the keys "where the red wires cluster thick":

"Wires from the earth, from the air;
Wires that whisper and chatter
At night when the trench-rats patter
And nibble among the rations and scuttle back
to their lair
Wires that are never at rest
• • • • •
And always his ear must hark
To the voices out of the dark,—
From the bombed and battered trenches where
the wounded moan in the mire,—
For a sign to waken the thunder
Which shatters the night in sunder
With the flash of the leaping muzzles and the
beat of battery fire."

The closing poem carries us to the pinnacle of the belief that war is justified by the heroism it awakens in the souls of men:

"Ye are the guns! Are we worthy? Shall not
these speak for us,
Out of the woods where the torn trees are
slashed with the vain bolts that seek for
us,
Thunder of batteries firing in unison, swish of
shell fighting,

Hissing that rushes to silence and breaks to the
thud of alighting
Death that outruns
Horseman and foot? Are we justified? An-
swer, O guns!

Yea, by your works are we justified—toil un-
relieved;
Manifold labors, co-ordinate each to the sending
achieved;
Discipline, not of the feet but the soul, unre-
mitting, unfeigned
Tortures unholy by flame and by maiming,
known, faced and disdained;
Courage that shuns
Only foolhardiness;—even by these are ye
worthy your guns."

Gilbert Frankau is a son of the late "Frank Danby," the well-known novelist.

Theodore Botrel is the great-hearted Breton poet who goes up and down the fighting-line in France singing his patriotic songs to the men in the trenches and ministering to the wounded. Elizabeth S. Dickerman has translated the poems² that have made him a favorite among the soldiers of the ranks of the Allies. His verses are exquisite, simple, childlike and appealing, the echoes of a race spirit that claims the admiration of the whole world. A. Le Braz, who has written the fine preface for this volume, recalls hearing Botrel sing on a certain occasion at Port Blanc. The fishermen and their families came "in whole tribes"—men, women and children—to the principal room of the inn lighted by tallow candles. Through the windows came the great organ notes of the sea. The bard took his place. He had hardly begun singing "The Paimpol Maid," when suddenly spontaneously, the whole company joined in, with a great crescendo of rough nasal voices like the noise of the tide rushing in upon the rocks. Botrel is young, he is barely thirty, the son of a peasant blacksmith of Dinan.

"Italy in Arms, and Other Poems,"³ brings us the graceful talent of Clinton Scollard in a collection of tributes to the many beauties of Italy. These poems have the appeal of delicate etchings. Their technique and feeling, their capture of evanescent beauty and their reverent appreciations of ancient fanes and treasured associations will commend this book to persons who really make books their friends.

A small book bound in a pleasant shade of green gives a collection of the principal poems of the recent leaders of the Irish insurrection: Thomas MacDonagh, P. H. Pearse, Joseph Mary Plunkett, and Sir Roger Casement. The volume is entitled "Poems of the Irish Revolutionary Brotherhood."⁴

¹ A Song of the Guns. By Gilbert Frankau. Houghton, Mifflin. 24 pp. 75 cents.

² Songs of Brittany. By Theodore Botrel. Richard Badger. 95 pp. \$1.

³ Italy In Arms, and Other Poems. By Clinton Scollard. Gomme & Marshall. 70 pp. 75 cents.

⁴ Poems of the Irish Revolutionary Brotherhood. Edited by Padraic Colum and Edward J. O'Brien. Small, Maynard. 60 pp. 50 cents.

THE NEW POETRY

CERTAIN critics have suggested that the new books of verse should be labeled in order that the purchaser shall not be deceived as to whether they contain the older approved forms or the multitudinous ebullitions of the Spectric, Symbolist or Imagist schools. We shall endeavor to state in our notices of new books of verse just what kind of poesy they contain, whether the rhymed forms to which popular usage has accustomed the reader, or the new free verse which has by its rebellion against form, had something to do with the recent widespread interest in poetry.

Like a *Pied Piper*, Alfred Kreymborg's new book of free verse forms, "Mushrooms," enters the Hamelin Town of poetry and presently all our traditions yield to the spell of his pipe and go scurrying like the rodents of that famous city. In "Mushrooms," the reader will find the very essence of the new school of ultra poetic expression. Mr. Kreymborg has fostered the rebellion on the part of certain younger poets in his magazine, *Others*. The work of the poets who contribute to this magazine is taken seriously by a group of critics as an indication of progress, of the inner significance of the modern revolutionary movements that are violently tearing the arts away from tradition, and setting men's feet on new highways of civilization. The poetry of "Mushrooms" will be strong meat to admirers of Keats and Shelley. It is daring, heavy with its own conceit, eccentric, definitely blasphemous against older ideas of the substance of poetry, but withal a delight to truth lovers.

"Some Imagist Poets, 1916" (Houghton, Mifflin), is the annual anthology of the work of certain poets, namely, Richard Aldington, H.D., John Gould Fletcher, F. S. Flint, D. H. Lawrence and Amy Lowell. These poets write in many meters, but mainly in *vers libre*, a verse form based on cadence, and generally unrhymed. The rhythms of these Imagist poems will be felt more keenly if they are read aloud rather slowly.

Their particular measure is not new in reality, for Milton, Dryden, Matthew Arnold and Henley occasionally used it with success. Judged by the new standards much of the anthology is highly successful poetry. Selections by Amy Lowell will serve to start the beginner on free verse and show just what the new poets are trying to get at. They are: "Patterns," "Spring Day," and "Stravinsky's 'Grotesques' for String Quartet."

There is no finer single poem in Imagist poetry than "Voyage a L'Infini" in "Idols" (Houghton, Mifflin), a book of verse by Walter Conrad Arensberg. Besides the so-called new poetry, this collection contains several fine sonnets and two translations: Mallarme's *L'Apres Midi d'un Faun*, and the fifth canto of "The Inferno."

"Goblins and Pagodas," free verse by John Gould Fletcher (Houghton, Mifflin), introduces its particular art of poesy with a preface that to a certain extent explains the curious contents of the volume. The first part "Ghosts of an Old House," presents a group of poems, the evocations in a child's mind of the fancied terrors aroused by an old house, its furniture and surroundings. In "Symphonies," the life of a young man is painted in poetry that attempts color values that are interchangeable with musical values. The symphonies in various colors, Blue, Black, Green, Gold, etc., portray the inner life of an artist, and if there is any failure in them it is because they have attempted too much. The "Blue Symphony" is the vision of unattainable beauty shimmering through the veil of mystery; the "White Symphony" renders the poet's struggle for perfection, his tribute to the "gaunt peak in mid-air." There are inner melodies attempted in this work which might fully freed to expression, exceed the singing of rhyme, but they lead to that most perfect poem of all poems—silence, because language is after all only a clumsy vehicle to express the harmonies that spin in the brain.

MIDSUMMER NOVELS

ALICE BROWN'S novel "The Prisoner" is a fascinating and readable. The theme is modern and appealing, that of the rehabilitation and adjustment to life of a young man who has been unjustly imprisoned as the scapegoat of a promoting company, and because of his wife's theft of a diamond necklace. The story has rich texture, workmanship of the highest quality and undeniable freshness and charm. But a certain incongruity lies in the unreality of the characters, which are set against a most convincing and realistic background. Esther Blake, the selfish wife of Jeffrey Blake, is the most baffling personage in the book. She seems the automaton of powerful impulses which the author has not made sufficiently clear. Lydia and Anne French,

the lovely stepdaughters of Colonel Blake, are shadowy for all their youth and charm, and the incidental male characters are hardly flesh-and-blood. But these are more than balanced by the clear-cut portrait of the shrewd old harpy, Esther's aunt, Madame Patricia Beattie, erstwhile the "friend" of mysterious royal personages and owner of the mysterious diamond necklace. Madame Beattie wears rusty black velvet and smokes cigarettes within the sacred precincts of the Blake veranda. She reeks of stale perfume, and has a profound contempt for the Decalogue, but she is very much alive.

Those who know New England—where the scenes of this novel are presumably laid—will not feel the incongruity between characters and setting, for these readers will know that in quiet, sleepy New England villages the most inexplicable personages and the most amazing happenings are often found. Perhaps they may even have known an "Aunt Patricia Beattie."

¹ Mushrooms. By Alfred Kreymborg. John Marshall Co. \$1.25.

² The Prisoner. By Alice Brown. Macmillan. 471 pp. \$1.50.

Hugh Walpole is at the Eastern battle front with the Red Cross. The emotional values of his experiences during the progress of the war he has employed in a book that is a re-creation of the Russian novel through the medium of the English temperament. The result is "The Dark Forest,"¹ a novel of extraordinary beauty and power. The actual "forest" is one in Russia that shelters the ebbing tide of warfare, the wounded and their attendants, and furnishes cover for the actual operations of war. Symbolically it is war, death, or any irretrievable disaster that man must rise up and encounter with undaunted courage. "The Dark Forest" seems to have had its inspiration from Browning's "Childe Ronald to the Dark Tower Came," for it is a defiance to the terrors of the unknown that would make puny our souls. Durwald, who tells the story, Trenchard, the Englishman, and the Russian surgeon love one woman, a Red Cross nurse, Sister Marie Ivanovna. She is betrothed to Trenchard, but jilts him to engage herself to Semyonov. A stray bullet kills Marie Ivanovna, and thereafter the rivalry of the suitors, Trenchard and Semyonov, is with Death, a rivalry wherein he who loses is the most fortunate. It is Trenchard who wins victory from defeat, who dies with strange exaltation of faith in the persistence of individuality beyond the grave. He is wounded terribly in the stomach. Semyonov kneels to lift his head and says to the dying man, "You've won. . . ."

Mr. Walpole gives us in the first half of the novel an interesting analysis of the Russian character that seems "superficially with its lack of restraint, its idealism, its impracticality, its mysticism, its material simplicities to be so readily grasped that the surprise that remains is the more dumbfounding." The Russian can never reveal the secret ideals of his soul; there is always a mystery in Russians and in Russia, and now in the days of war "in the very soul of Russia the mystery is stirring; here the restlessness, the eagerness, the disappointment, the vision of pursuit is working; and some who are outside her gates she has drawn into the same search." This novel is a work of art, unqualifiedly a great book, for it shows us that the only refuge from our despair is the sheer persistence in our own identity.

Gilbert Cannan's new novel, "Three Sons and a Mother,"² is the story of a Scotch family, of Margaret Keith Lawrie, who brought up her three boys and two lassies on a paltry ninety pounds a year; and of the Lawrie boys' careers in the busy English town of Thirgsby, where their uncle Andrew offers them a start in his cotton mills. The first half of the book gives a splendid study of the development of five young natures of entirely different characteristics along diverse lines of activity. The second half reveals with immense detail the intimate life thoughts and feelings of the eldest son, James Lawrie. The characteristics of Margaret Lawrie, of Catherine, James' wife, of the "wee Mary," are very well executed. But in the strange, shy Tibby, the silent, ugly-featured little Scotch maid of all work to the Lawries, Mr. Cannan has surpassed himself. She is the brood-

ing spiritual essence of the family, a "fool," as she acknowledges, a strange sort of a fool, for material considerations have no weight in her mind, but nevertheless her vision touches high places that are above the reach of even the pious Margaret. James marries Catherine, the beautiful Englishwoman, but he continually returns to Tibby to warm his soul at the fires of her faith. The end of James Lawrie is not in this volume, for we leave him in mid-career just as he is starting for America to report on the cotton trade. Mr. Cannan shows himself a master of psychology in his delicate handling of the scene between James Lawrie and the dying Margaret; the subtle reversal of natural emotional values at the approach of death embodies a feeling so profound, so sacredly human, it is scarcely to be trusted in words. This novel exceeds Mr. Cannan's previous work in realism, characterization and mastery of detail. He has called it a tragedy-comedy, for it is a blending of humor and pathos, of satirical wit and poignant incident.

Seasoned novel-readers will remember a novel by Maxwell Grey that appeared thirty years ago, "The Silence of Dean Maitland." This book has enjoyed general popularity and held its own against newer books since the time it was written. The pen name "Maxwell Grey" covers the identity of Miss Mary Gleed Tuttielt. She has written many novels none of which have been as highly successful as the story of the stubborn and silent Dean. Her new novel, "The World Mender,"³ from every point of view save perhaps that of emotional intensity bids fair to equal the success of the earlier book. The narrative tells of the career of George Darrell, a young Englishman who sacrifices everything to a political career. He is the grandson of an old Nonconformist couple living in a tiny village on the outskirts of a landed estate. He belongs to the younger generation in England who feel the stirring of new forces, and through his championship of the masses becomes known as "The People's Man." At the height of his career he sacrifices the meed of his power and the love of a beautiful and gifted girl to an entanglement with an adventuress known as the Lady Arabel Errison. The side of the story that deals with George Darrell's rise to political power is well done; the account of his affair with the adventuress falls below the level of the rest of the novel. As a typical story of English life, of excellent workmanship rising at times in descriptive passages to poetic beauty, this novel should find a large number of readers.

"Chapel"⁴ is a first novel by a Welshman and lover of his land, a moving story of the development of character and the persistence of family traits in the Chapels, father and son. Stories with realistic details of life in Wales are rare, and the setting of this novel is an addition to its power and charm. The author, Miles Lewis, wrote steadily during the years he was employed as a schoolmaster in Wales, without attempting to publish anything. He took a business position to broaden his contacts with men and finally when fully ready wrote "Chapel." Out of the fight waged by father and son for the rehabilitation of the Chapels as a family, there emerges

¹ The Dark Forest. By Hugh Walpole. Doran. 320 pp. \$1.35.

² Three Sons and a Mother. By Gilbert Cannan. Doran. 547 pp. \$1.50.

³ The World Mender. By Maxwell Grey. Appleton. 466 pp. \$1.35.

⁴ Chapel. By Miles Lewis. Doran. 344 pp. \$1.35.

the love story of Bess Hughes and Griffith Chapel, the story of the fight a young girl makes against the unreal values of life, and her surrender to the real. The final reconciliation between Griffith and his father through the father's service to the young man's wife, the saving of her life at the last, brings to an end one of the finest novels of the year—a brilliant success for a first novel, and one whose characters and incidents are not easily forgotten.

"These Lynnekers," is a fine novel of excellent artistry by J. D. Beresford, who will be remembered for two works in particular—"The House in Demetrius Road" and the trilogy "Jacob Stahl." The new novel is the story of a young Englishman, Dickie Lynneker, the youngest son of the rector of the little English village of Halton. When the book opens Dickie is at Oakstone School, struggling with the classics and achieving success only in mathematics. The narrative follows the life of the sturdy boy through adolescence to young manhood and pictures the gradual winning of clarity of thought, balance, and reasoned independence. Dickie's love story is the least realistic part of the book. There is a freedom from sentimental drivel, a wholesomeness, a consistency about this book that lift it far above the average of excellence.

The work of Stephen French Whitman has been brilliant from its beginning. His short stories won instant attention and the unusual novel "Predestined" placed him in the front ranks of American novelists. He has made a long stride forward to solid ground in "Children of Hope," a much-discussed novel that transplants Aurelius Goodchild and his three daughters of Zenasville, Ohio, to Paris and to Florence. He has taken an average, perfectly good and harmless, idealistic, optimistic group of Americans and shown them to us steering with the sublime assurance of the lovely and the innocent along the perilous ways of acquiring culture in Europe. Aurelius comes into a fortune of one hundred thousand dollars, and the father and three daughters

forsake the modest yellow house in Zenasville for New York and Europe. Aurelius has named his daughters for the Three Graces. Aglaia, the eldest, aspires to be an opera singer; Euphrosyne wishes to write, and Thalia, the beauty of the rich shade of auburn curls, the ripe and scarlet lips and blue eyes, dreams of becoming a great artist.

The desires and dreams come to naught. Against the glittering achievements of real genius, their aspirations fall like withered rose leaves. Thalia marries a genius and becomes a happy wife. Aglaia conquers her disappointment and marries a young Devonshire squire with a profile like Julius Caesar, and Euphrosyne returns to Zenasville to care for her father and the remnants of the Goodchild legacy, which has dwindled sadly under various squanderings. Mr. Whitman leaves the family and their husbands united at a Thanksgiving dinner at the Zenasville home. The moral—if there be one—seems to say: We Americans are not what we dream ourselves to be, but without pretensions and copyings of European culture—we are a rather delightful, amiable sort of people carrying within our souls the secret of genuine happiness, the childlike optimism that distinguishes us from other nations, whom the weary light of knowledge and culture has more perfectly illumined. F. R. Kruger has furnished some exceedingly good illustrations.

"The Bright Eyes of Danger," by John Foster, is a happy find among the serious novels of the month. It is a most entertaining romantic novel, a chronicle of the daring adventures of Edmund Layton of Darehope-in-Liddisdail, Scotland, in the troubled years of 1745 and 1746; of his ride to the border to the Lothian and what befell him there and on the Moray seaboard. Also of his personal dealings with the young Pretender and what befell him in a moment of weakness for sake of the fairest lady in Scotland, when he meets the Pretender fleeing from his enemies in a heavy mist. Layton chooses between the King's commission and a deed of human kindness.

Narcissus. By Viola Meynell. Putnam. \$1.35.

A novel of great delicacy and charm that is a careful study in the contrasting values of the events of everyday life.

Come Out of the Kitchen. By Alice Duer Miller. Century. Ill. \$1.35.

A gay, delightful story, without much plot, but freshly phrased and frankly entertaining. An old Southern family decide to rent the decaying family mansion on account of illness in the family. The house is taken by a rich young Northerner who moves in accompanied by his entire equipment which includes his lawyer, the woman who hopes to be his mother-in-law and her daughter. The development of the story is so

unusual, the fun so genuine, the reader will easily want to give this book a second reading.

About Miss Mattie Morningglory. By Lilian Bell. Rand, McNally. \$1.35.

A Christian Science story about a little old maid milliner who meets with her first love experience and disillusion when she is forty years old. Miss Mattie is taken to a hospital to recover from the shock of her lover's baseness in making love to her in order to possess her small savings, and there she hears the voice of some ministering woman speaking the truths of Christian Science and observes that healing of serious cases follow upon the words. The little milliner becomes an ardent Christian Scientist and gives her life to the care of helpless and ailing children in order that she may heal them through the exercise of the Christ power.

¹ These Lynnekers. By J. D. Beresford. Doran. 456 pp. \$1.50.

² Children of Hope. By Stephen French Whitman. Century. Ills. 508 pp. \$1.40.

³ The Bright Eyes of Danger. By John Foster. Lipincott. 334 pp. \$1.35.

ART BOOKS

"A HISTORY OF SCULPTURE," by Harold North Fowler, Ph.D., is intended for use in schools and for the general public. Beginning with sculpture in Egypt and Babylonia, he follows the development of the art down to the present day and touches upon the phases of sculpture presented in the art of China, India, and Japan. All important developments in sculpture are discussed and the individual works and artists are described as space permits. The illustrations are especially deserving of praise; there are nearly two hundred, which have been reproduced from rare prints. A work most thoroughly adapted to the needs of the average individual who wants to know all about sculpture.

"The Studio Year-Book of Decorative Art" is a review of the latest developments in the artistic construction, decoration, and furnishing of the house. Articles on cottage interiors, British architecture and decoration, architecture and decoration in Canada, New Zealand, South Africa, and the United States, are presented with many charming illustrations in color and in black and white. The book is a delight to the prospective house-builder and to the home-maker. The article by Sydney Jones on the adaptation of decoration to the modern cottage should bear fruit in the future artistic development of the small cottage-home in this country.

Henri Gaudier-Brzeska, a French sculptor who was killed in a charge at Neuville-St. Vaast on June 15, 1915, had already at the age of twenty-two achieved world-wide recognition. There is no doubt that he was a very great genius, one who poured fresh vitality into art and left his mark upon the art of sculpture in the form of a return to the simple, the primitive, and the archaic. His work was the echo of bygone ages, sharp, rigid accents of form arranged in planes that expressed emotions by their relationship one to another. Ezra Pound has prepared a memoir of this young genius—a labor of affection—and a most beautiful book with wide margins, clear type and thirty-eight illustrations consisting of photographs of his sculpture, and four portraits by Walter Bennington and numerous reproductions from the Gaudier-Brzeska drawings.¹ At present very little of the sculptor's work is accessible to the public. Some examples are to be placed in South Kensington, others in the Musée du Luxembourg. In this country a group of his statues are in the art collection of John Quinn. Gaudier-Brzeska was a "vorticist," together with other moderns, such as Brancusi and Dunikowski. He declared that his particular vortex was "will and consciousness," the power to express abstract thoughts of conscious superiority. His letters from the French trenches at the front are included in the memoir. They show that his ideas of art were not changed by the contact with war. He regarded the conflict as a great remedy, a purge to humanity, and in one of the letters he writes that the terrible bombardments "do not alter in the least the outlines of the

hill." A Mauser rifle captured from the Germans offended him by its ugliness. To pass the time he broke the butt off and carved a design upon it. Mr. Pound's tribute to Gaudier-Brzeska is not alone a memoir, it is an elucidation of many of the theories of modern art.

The best work available on the principles that underlie the art of dancing is **"The Antique Greek Dance,"** translated by Harriet J. Beavley, from the French of Maurice Emmanuel, Doctor of Letters and Laureat du Conservatoire. The first edition of this scientific work was soon exhausted and the translator tramped the streets of Paris searching the old bookshops of the city to find a copy of this marvelous book. It is almost necessary to the understanding of dancing, to its higher development to have the knowledge contained in this invaluable treatise. The author reconstructs the modern ballet steps from the old Greek dances, and gives minute directions for the steps in over 600 illustrations. This book should be purchased and treasured by dancers and by all those interested in the rhythmic awakening of the mind and body through the dance. A book that cannot be too highly praised.

"Four-Dimensional Vistas," by Claude Bragdon, author of **"Projective Ornament"** and **"A Primer of Higher Space,"** is the outcome of Mr. Bragdon's practical experience as an architect and of his research in science, psychology, and metaphysics. It endeavors to throw light on the mathematical concept of the fourth dimension, to show us a fourth dimension of space that is the home of our future freedom. He believes that we are even now feeling the increasing pressure upon consciousness "from a new direction," and that he who glimpses this develops a new set of mental fingers, and frees his soul to the splendor of a higher apprehension of the Cosmos. **"Transcendental Physics," "Curved Time," "Sleep and Dreams," "The Night Side of Consciousness," "Eastern Teaching," "The Mystics," "Genius,"** and **"The Gift of Freedom"** are some of the chapter headings of this marvelously interesting book.

What is the charm that lies in an old silver tankard, in eighteenth-century candle-sticks, George I. tea caddies, and Elizabethan flagons? It is difficult to discover, unless one enters the domain of psychology, just why nearly every householder desires to possess some good old silver. Few persons, comparatively speaking, have the knowledge of shapes and hall-marks than enable them to buy wisely and avoid imitations. **"Chats on Old Silver"** is a most valuable volume of convenient size to carry around on collecting tours. Its contents cover a wide range: Marks stamped on silver, ecclesiastical plate, Scottish silver, Irish silver, and chapter the different pieces of a silver service, and odd cups, chalices, etc. There are ninety-nine full-page illustrations, and illustrated table of marks.

¹ **A History of Sculpture.** By Harold North Fowler. Macmillan. Ill. 445 pp. \$2.

² **The Studio Year-Book of Decorative Art.** John Lane. 182 pp. \$3.

³ **Gaudier-Brzeska.** By Ezra Pound. John Lane. Ill. 168 pp. \$3.50.

⁴ **The Antique Greek Dance.** By Maurice Emmanuel. John Lane. 304 pp. \$3.

⁵ **Four-Dimensional Vistas.** By Claude Bragdon. Alfred Knopf. 134 pp. \$1.25.

⁶ **Chats on Old Silver.** By Arthur Hayden. Stokes, 484 pp. Ill.

THE GREAT WAR

The German Republic. By Walter Wellman. Dutton. 202 pp. \$1.

In this little book Mr. Wellman appeals to "the intelligence, the conscience, the self-reliant citizenship, the moral resoluteness of one of the greatest peoples of earth." In a word, his book is the expression of a vision of peace triumphant over physical force. The book is addressed to the German people, "whom the world has loved and in whom the world still has faith."

Modern Germany in Relation to the Great War. Translated by William Wallace White-lock. Mitchell Kennerley. 628 pp. \$2.

This is a collection of essays by a number of leaders of thought in modern Germany. The writers are in nearly every instance professors in German and Austrian universities. A few are government officials who are in charge of the state activities about which they write. Taken as a whole, the book is an attempt to interpret modern Germany and Germany's aims to the world in general. Although specifically concerned with the war, the book has a broader general purpose.

For England. By H. Fielding-Hall. Houghton, Mifflin. 144 pp. \$1.50.

A series of sketches illustrating the patriotic spirit of the British people.

The Human Boy and the War. By Eden Phillpotts. Macmillan. 291 pp. \$1.25.

An English boy is the hero of this latest bit of fiction from the pen of Mr. Phillpotts. The boy's viewpoint in relation to the war is clearly brought out.

With Botha's Army. By J. P. Kay Robinson. Dutton. 158 pp. \$1.25.

An Englishman's account of the expedition in German Southwest Africa under General Botha.

A Soldier of the Legion. By Edward Morlae. Houghton, Mifflin. 129 pp. Ill. \$1.

These experiences of a young Californian of French descent who enlisted in the famous "Foreign Legion" soon after the outbreak of the war were published in the *Atlantic Monthly* and their authenticity was called in question immediately, but Mr. Sedgwick, the editor of the *Atlantic*, has apparently received satisfactory assurance of the author's good faith, for he signs a preface to the book strongly commending Mr. Morlae for his soldierly qualities. The story that this "soldier of the Legion" has to tell is at least full of a sense of actuality, as Mr. Sedgwick says.

Prisoner of War. By André Warnod. Philadelphia: Lippincott. 172 pp. Ill. \$1.

This is a soldier's story of many months spent in a military prison in Germany. Following is the writer's description of the scene of action: "The camp is almost a town, a town of twenty thousand souls, with a male population of many

and various elements: civilians from the North (of France), mostly minors not liable for military service, or invalids; every variety of soldiers, Territorials from conquered towns, wounded Zouaves, numerous hungry and ragged Russians, bare-legged scouts, native African soldiers wrapped in their burnouses, and, to add to the crowd's cosmopolitan appearance, all the uniforms are interchanged. There are Zouaves with Russian boots, Belgians with English cloaks, sharp-shooters wearing gunners' jackets, and a collection of regulation buttons of all the armies may be found on all the tunics."

The Luck of Thirteen. By Mr. and Mrs. Jan Gordon. Dutton. 378 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

A vivacious account of the wanderings and flight of an Englishman and his wife through Montenegro and Serbia in war time.

With the Zionists in Gallipoli. By Lieut.-Col. J. H. Patterson, D. S. O. Doran. 307 pp. Ill. \$2.

The Zion Mule Corps, distinguished for its service on the Gallipoli Peninsula, is said to have been the first Jewish military unit formed in two thousand years. It was composed of Russian-born refugees from Palestine. Colonel Patterson commanded this corps, and in the account of its service that he here renders he reviews and criticizes the Gallipoli campaign from the professional soldier's viewpoint.

The Soldier-Boy. By C. Lewis Hind. Putnam. 116 pp. 75 cents.

A series of sketches of life at the front intended to set forth spiritual gains and victories, rather than the details of military progress.

Under Three Flags—With the Red Cross. By St. Clair Livingston and Ingeborg Steen-Hansen. Macmillan. 238 pp. \$1.

Accounts of Red Cross work in Belgium, France, and Serbia.

With My Regiment from the Aisne to La Bassée. By "Platoon Commander." Philadelphia: Lippincott. 231 pp. \$1.

An English soldier's story of the early days of the war.

Dixmude—The Epic of the French Marines. By Charles Le Goffic. Philadelphia: Lippincott. 164 pp. Ill. \$1.

The heroism of the French Brigade of Marines (*Fusiliers Marins*), long concealed in official reports, now receives recognition in this connected narrative drawn from a variety of sources, chiefly private letters.

In the Field. By Marcel Dupont. Philadelphia: Lippincott. 307 pp. \$1.

The impressions of a French officer of light cavalry formed during the first year of the war.

FINANCIAL NEWS

I.—TAXATION OF INVESTMENT SECURITIES

THE American investor of the last generation did not have to worry a great deal over taxation, compared with investors in other countries. Even to-day the net return on securities is much greater than in Europe before the war. The income tax has been a British institution for a long while. The French have always rebelled against an impost of this sort, but they have had to pay liberally in other ways. The Austrians, Italians, Russians are overtaxed. Germans had to submit to a tax on principal to raise the amounts required to prepare the country for the war. If the American bondholder of fifteen years ago had paid all of the taxes to which he was liable he would have suffered comparatively small deduction in the amount of his income.

The past decade, however, has witnessed a very determined effort on the part of Federal and State authorities to pay their expenses on the help given them from holders of personal property. After an income tax had been declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court, the various States adopted an amendment so that a Federal income-tax law might be placed on the statute-books, and in 1914 the first payments on this account were made into the United States Treasury. There has just been completed the third year's tax record, which shows that approximately \$120,000,000 was levied by the Government from the income of her citizens in 1915, and now it is proposed to double this sum as a means of liquidating debts due mainly to the desire for a larger army and navy. The process of addition to tax obligations shows no sign of having reached its climax.

If the bill introduced by Representative Kitchin on July 5 becomes a law, incomes will be taxable next year on the following basis:

PROPOSED TAX

To \$20,000.....	2 per cent.
To \$40,000.....	1 per cent. super-tax
To \$60,000.....	2 per cent. super-tax
To \$80,000.....	3 per cent. super-tax
To \$100,000.....	4 per cent. super-tax
To \$150,000.....	5 per cent. super-tax
To \$200,000.....	6 per cent. super-tax
To \$250,000.....	7 per cent. super-tax
To \$300,000.....	8 per cent. super-tax

To \$500,000.....	9 per cent. super-tax
Above \$500,000.....	10 per cent. super-tax

PRESENT TAX

To \$20,000.....	1 per cent.
To \$50,000.....	1 per cent. super-tax
To \$75,000.....	2 per cent. super-tax
To \$100,000.....	3 per cent. super-tax
To \$250,000.....	4 per cent. super-tax
To \$500,000.....	5 per cent. super-tax
To \$500,000 and above.....	6 per cent. super-tax

For a country on a peace basis and possessing the lowest government debt per capita and the highest wealth per capita of any under the sun, a tax which absorbs one-tenth of income looks rather socialistic; but, even so, it is under some of the tax levies that were in service in Europe before the war.

Government bonds are free of all taxes, and, in the majority of cases, State and municipal bonds are exempt from taxes if held within the State. It will be realized that in placing a tax on securities of other States or of foreign municipalities, counties, or districts lawmakers have inadvertently reduced the borrowing power of those unities, for in most cases outside capital has to supply the major portion of the requirements. If the New York State investor has to submit to a tax of 1 to 1½ per cent. on the income of a 4 or 4½ per cent. interior State bond, he is likely to leave it alone, and in so far as he does so the development of that State will be checked. If he does buy the bond and fails to declare his tax obligation, which unfortunately happens very often, he is violating and vitiating the law and dulling his own moral sense. There seem to be State laws on taxation, however, expressly made to induce perjury.

Improvement is taking place in some of the more radical State laws. Massachusetts has recently gone a long way forward in this direction and given an outside market for her securities which they did not have under laws which almost made the impost on income confiscatory. On the other hand, Ohio had gone backward, introducing a mass of taxation laws in 1913 which greatly complicate investment in the State, as there are municipals of the same issuing districts some of which are taxable and others non-taxable.

Lack of uniformity in the tax laws of States is a very great hindrance to spread of capital from the reservoirs of accumulation in the East to the other sections badly in need of irrigation by capital.

In a majority of the States bonds of the State and the bonds of municipalities are taxable, though there are quite a number of instances where both classes of securities are exempt after certain years. The best way to indicate the general tendency is to give a table showing the status of the bonds in these States, as follows:

	STATE BONDS	MUNICIPAL AND COUNTY BONDS
Arkansas	Taxable	Taxable
Colorado	Taxable	Taxable
Connecticut	Exempt after paying 4 mills per \$1	Exempt after paying 4 mills per \$1
Idaho	Taxable	Taxable
Illinois	Taxable	Taxable
Indiana	Exempt after 1903 issue	Exempt after 1903 issue
Iowa	Taxable	Exempt after 1909 issue
Kansas	Taxable	Taxable
Maine	Exempt after 1909 issue	Exempt after 1909 issue
Maryland	Exempt	Taxable except Baltimore stock for local taxes
Michigan	Taxable	Exempt
Minnesota	Exempt after 1911 issue	Exempt after 1911 issue
Mississippi	Exempt after 1906 issue	Exempt after 1906 issue
Missouri	Taxable if located in State	Taxable if located in State
Montana	Taxable	Taxable
Nebraska	Taxable	Taxable
Nevada	Taxable	Taxable
New Hampshire	Exempt if interest does not exceed 5 per cent.	Subject to specific statutes with 3½ per cent. maximum untaxed rate
North Carolina	Exempt	Taxable
North Dakota..	Taxable	Taxable
Ohio	Exempt if issued prior to Jan. 1, 1913	Irregular
Oklahoma	Exempt	Taxable
Oregon	Taxable	Taxable
Pennsylvania...	Exempt	4 mills on \$1
Rhode Island..	Exempt	40 cents per \$100 of assessed value
South Carolina	Exempt	Exempt after issue February 20, 1912
South Dakota..	Taxable	Taxable
Tennessee	Taxable	Taxable

	STATE BONDS	MUNICIPAL AND COUNTY BONDS
Utah	Taxable	Taxable
Vermont	Taxable	Exempt after issue of 1907
Virginia	Exempt since issue of 1882	Taxable
West Virginia.	Taxable	Taxable

In forty-one of the forty-eight States the holder of the obligations of another State or of the municipal bonds of a foreign State is taxed at varying rates. For instance, the State of Minnesota makes an impost of 3 mills on the dollar of value issued. Pennsylvania places a tax of 4 mills on the dollar and Rhode Island 40 cents per \$100 of assessed value, which is in all cases the same tax as on the securities of the State itself. Different States have peculiar conditions of development to deal with and they have tried to encourage this by modifying the terms of taxation. In Idaho the statutes indicate that growing crops, fruit and nut-bearing trees, planted in orchard form, are exempt from taxes for four years and vineyards for three years. In Mississippi all municipals are taxable except drainage district bonds, which puts a premium on reclamation enterprises.

There are two States, viz., Kansas and Vermont, in which the interest or income on United States bonds may be taxed. The extreme of taxation on securities occurs in some of the counties of Western States, where the impost is as high as \$3 to \$3.50 per \$100, and it is occasionally found to be as much as \$5 per \$100, which would absorb nearly all of the income on any safe investment. A savings-bank account drawing interest of 3 per cent. would not only return nothing, but the principal of the investment would be undermined and gradually shrink in amount. These are, of course, unusual and extreme instances, but they indicate the unscientific character of taxation throughout the country and a lack of general application of tax principles to national needs.

In the last few years twenty of the forty-eight States have adopted constitutional amendments which call for a reclassification of property and taxation which discriminates between real and personal property. These States are Arizona, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Georgia, Iowa, Kentucky, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, New Mexico, New York, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont, Virginia, and Wisconsin, with Illinois and South Dakota to vote on the amendment next November.

II.—INVESTORS' QUERIES AND ANSWERS

No. 755. BONDS FOR A \$500 INVESTMENT

I would appreciate your help in connection with the contemplated purchase of a \$500 bond. I am a small saver, and am looking for an essentially secure investment that will bring a better interest return than 3 per cent., the savings-bank rate in this part of the country. I will state that I am a greenhorn, but have been told by a friend that any of the below-named bonds are safe and sound investments:

Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe general mortgage 4's; Baltimore & Ohio first mortgage 4's; Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul general mortgage 4's; Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul convertible 4½'s, Norfolk & Western consolidated 4's; Union Pacific first and land grant 4's; Northern Pacific prior lien 4's.

Would the prices of the above bonds be depressed if there should be a general strike of railroad employees, as in prospect at present?

It would be extremely difficult for anyone to improve on your friend's advice, at least as far as railroad bonds are concerned. The issues he has suggested are all of the very highest grade and most conservative investments of their class. In fact, all of them, without exception, conform to the very high standards that are set up by the laws of New York State for the investment of savings bank and trust funds. Nor would you find in the general class of railroad bonds any issues that would be likely to prove more satisfactory from the point of view of marketability.

But even bonds of this grade cannot be expected to be immune from all the influences that cause investments to fluctuate in market price. It is quite conceivable, for instance, that if it should prove impossible for the railroad managers to adjust their differences with their employees so as to avert a general strike, a good many of these bonds would be thrown into the market with the result that their prices would be temporarily depressed. But it is not conceivable that this situation could become so acute as to materially affect the underlying positions of the bonds. Of the seven issues in question, it is likely that the St. Paul convertibles would prove the most susceptible to such an influence as this.

Everything considered, such bonds as these are probably best for the "greenhorn" to begin with, although there are a good many other small-denomination issues of other classes that offer as high a degree of safety, practically speaking—for example, bonds like American Agricultural Chemical 5's, American Telephone & Telegraph collateral 4's, Anglo-French 5's, Commonwealth Power Railway & Light convertible 6's, Denver Gas & Electric first 5's, Laclede Gas first 5's, Montana Power first and refunding 5's.

No. 756. FOR A SHORT TERM, "LIQUID" INVESTMENT

I have lately brought my work to a saving basis, and now have some money on deposit in a local bank without interest. I may need it at any time, but have been thinking there might be some way in which I could invest it and have it earn something meantime. Can you offer any suggestions?

In such circumstances short-term securities having at least a reasonably active market are undoubtedly the things for you to take under consideration. In this category of investment the following are representative current offerings:

Kansas City Terminal Railway 4½'s, due 1921, at about 99¾; Southern Railway 5's, due 1917, at about 100¾; Brooklyn Rapid Transit 5's, due

1918, at about 100¾; Northern States Power 6's, due 1926, at about 98½; International Harvester 5's, due 1918, at about 101½; United Fruit 5's, due 1918, at about 100½; Chicago & Northwestern equipment 4½'s, due 1916 to 1923, to yield approximately 4.10 per cent; Louisville & Nashville equipment 5's, due 1916 to 1923, to yield approximately 4.20 per cent.; New York Central Lines equipment 4½'s, due 1916 to 1923, to yield approximately 4.25 per cent.

It is apparent that if you were to invest your surplus funds in this way your average yield of income would be well under 5 per cent., but that is all you can reasonably expect on securities that are essentially of the "liquid" class—the kind you ought to have.

No. 757. INSTALMENT SAVINGS CERTIFICATES

I have recently seen the offering of "instalment savings certificates" so-called, to net the investor 8 per cent. Would you mind giving me your opinion of the safety of this type of security?

Securities bearing similar names have been issued in a good many different forms. With few exceptions they are found upon analysis to lack tangible security of any kind. Most frequently they are the credit obligations of concerns engaged in real estate promotion or development. Experience seems to have demonstrated pretty conclusively that "savings" devices of this nature cannot be recommended for investment. Even the best of them have been found to possess undesirable features considered from the view of the investor. We are frank to say, moreover, that we do not believe the rate of 8 per cent. can safely be offered on this or any other form of security, devised for the employment of small savings.

No. 758. AMERICAN WATER WORKS AND ELECTRIC COMPANY

Can you give me any information as to the condition of the American Water Works and Electric Company?

A report on the results of this company's operation for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1915, showed operating income of \$946,122 and net income after deducting bond interest and other fixed charges amounting to \$478,638. The total surplus as of June 30, 1915, of \$568,608. The net income of the company as reported here was the equivalent of about 9½ per cent. earned on the first preferred stock and about 1¼ per cent. on the participating preferred stock, after allowing for 7 per cent. dividends on the senior issue. Later figures, in more or less abbreviated form, show that the company still continues to make progress in the development of its earning power.

No. 759. GUARANTEED BANK-DEPOSIT LAW

Will you please inform me what States have guaranteed bank deposits and whether such laws apply to State banks only, or to all banks operating within the State.

We are informed that the States having bank deposit guarantee laws in force now are Oklahoma, Kansas, Nebraska, Mississippi, Texas, and South Dakota.

These laws are applicable only to such banks as are incorporated under the laws of the respective States. They do not apply in any way to banks in the national or Federal Reserve system.

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

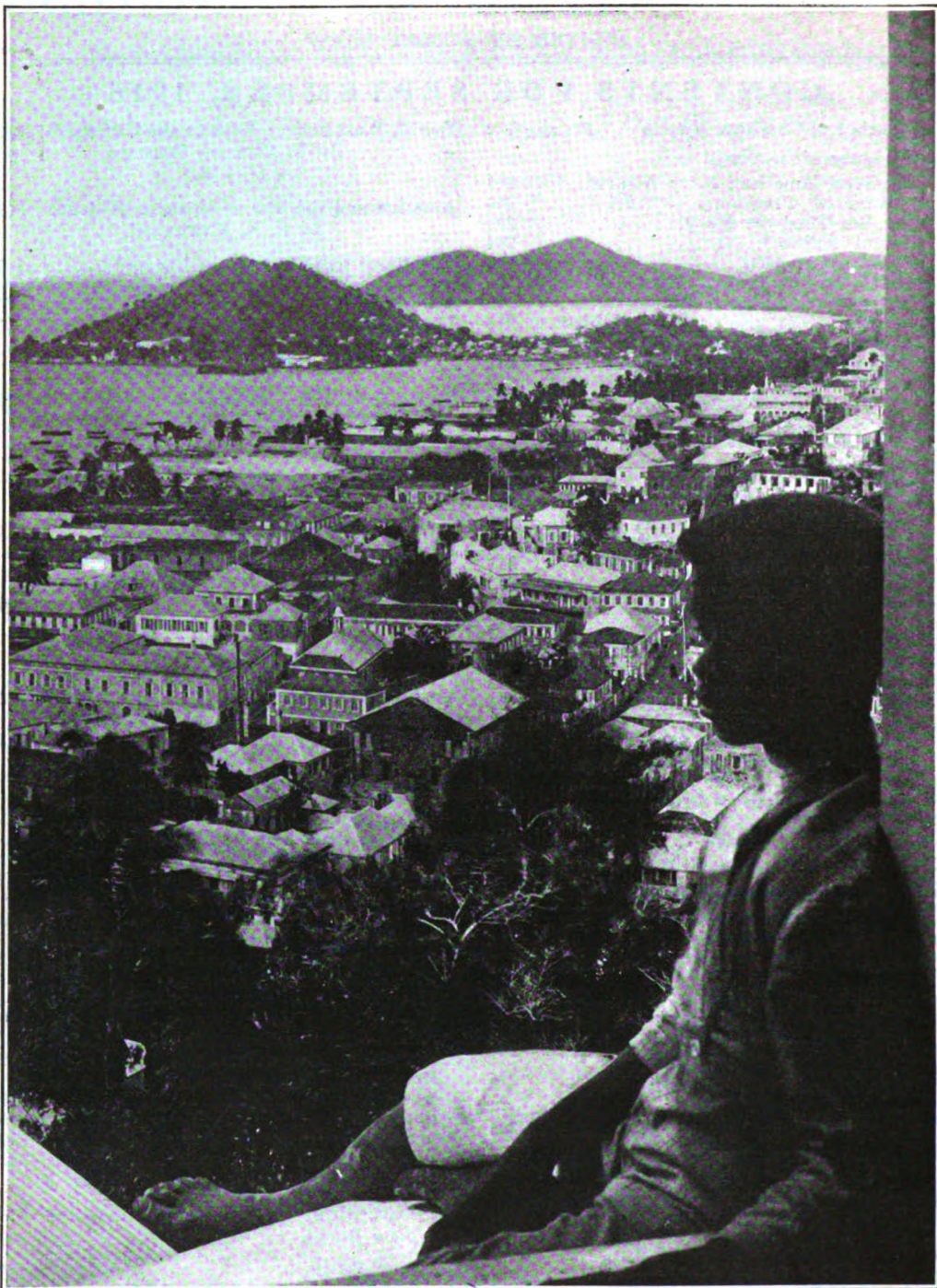
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THE HARBOR OF CHARLOTTE AMALIE, ST. THOMAS, DANISH WEST INDIES

This view was taken through the tower window of "Bluebeard's Castle" between the City of Charlotte Amalie and the adjacent mountains. The picture shows the well-protected harbor, the strategical value of which is the chief reason for the acquisition of these islands by the United States. (See article on page 292.)

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

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NEW YORK, SEPTEMBER, 1916

No. 3

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*The Great
American Navy
Assured*

As the European war enters upon its third year, with neutral rights more than ever disregarded, the party in power at Washington radically changes its opinions and provides for a large American navy. The vote on that question in the House of Representatives, on August 15, is by far the most important event in our national history-making of recent weeks. When Congress began its present session last December, President Wilson laid before it his program of national defense. We have heretofore explained how essentially the program was altered as regards the army. The Naval bill is now agreed upon calls for almost twice as large a building program in the coming year as the Administration laid down in its recommendations as the starting point for the present measure. The President and Secretary Daniels asked for two battleships of the dreadnought type and two battle-cruisers

of a similar size and importance. The House rejected the dreadnoughts in the bill that it passed, and voted for five battle-cruisers. The Senate changed the bill altogether, greatly enlarging the program. It doubled the President's original plan by providing for four battleships and four battle-cruisers. The President laid down a five-year schedule, which the Senate changed to one of three years. It is this general program of the Senate that has been adopted by the House, with the active and urgent approval of the President and the Navy Department. The new ships to be built within three years will cost about \$600,000,000. The Naval bill for the coming year provides for expending about \$315,000,000 for the maintenance and enlargement of the American navy. This is much the largest naval appropriation ever made by any country in time of peace. The three-year program calls for ten new battleships, six battle-cruisers, ten scout cruisers, fifty destroyers, fifty-eight coast submarines, nine fleet submarines, and a dozen other vessels, including fuel ships, a hospital ship, and so on.

*A
National
Program*

It is not merely the magnitude of this naval program that gives it so much importance. Great Britain makes its navy a national institution not subject to partisan treatment. Heretofore the tendency in the United States has been to regard the efficient navy as a Republican policy. Typical Democratic leaders, like Mr. Bryan, have believed in a relatively small navy. Since the outbreak of the European war, the Republicans have been demanding high efficiency in naval administration, thorough naval preparedness, and a program of enlargement bearing some relation to the dangers that beset our nation in view of the colossal war in which all important naval powers except our own are involved. It is, indeed, a remarkable thing



PEACE AT THE PROPER PRICE
From the *Tribune* (New York)

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that in the very course of the consideration of their own Naval bill the Administration and the Democratic Congress have educated themselves. They have frankly changed their principles and their practices, and made themselves responsible for the kind of naval preparedness always advocated by Admiral Dewey and the General Board of the Navy, and supported by the Republican leaders. It is not to the discredit of the Democrats that they would greatly have preferred not to spend so much money for a navy. Nor on the other hand is it to their discredit that they should have recognized stern facts, and should have seen the need of providing for the national defense.

Never at any time since the foundation of our republic have American rights been so flagrantly disregarded by the maritime powers of Europe as during the past two years. We have made protests in words, but Europe has not thought we meant what we said because we have taken none of the obvious and simple steps that would have secured respect for the rights of neutrals. The leverage that we might have used to secure recognition of the rights that we have asserted will soon be gone. It will not be a great while before the military and maritime powers of Europe will be released from their present absorption and terrific strain. The most fatuous people on earth are those Americans who say that the end of the war will leave Europe exhausted and helpless, while leaving us vigorous and invincible. Canada alone, if the war should end within six months, could thoroughly defeat the United States long before our ill-prepared country could find rifles or ammunition for its recruits. Never at any moment in their history have any of the European powers been as strong for war as to-day; and it is perhaps within bounds to say that they have never been as little regardful of the rights of other nations as now. In the early weeks of the war they were all rather sensitive as to what is called "the public opinion of the world." But the longer they fight and the more they spend of blood and money, the more hardened they become and the more contemptuous of such abstract considerations as right and wrong.

It is not one side alone that acts upon the cynical precept that "necessity knows no law." The Allies, even more than the Central Powers if anything, have determined to make the world somehow recoup them for their sacrifices. The only thing likely to stand between the people of the United States and profound national humiliation within the next five years is a greatly increased navy. That the party in power begins to see the truth is fortunate beyond expression.



HON. L. P. PADGETT
(Mr. Padgett, of Tennessee, is chairman of the House Naval Committee. Under his lead the House accepted the Senate bill providing for a great American navy.)

voted for the big navy. Mr. Padgett, chairman of the House Naval Committee, swung into line and led in a support of the Senate's bill as against his own. Mr. Kitchin, Democratic floor leader, held to his earlier views and bitterly criticized the President and Secretary of the Navy for having changed their ideas within two months. But the President has had to deal with a series of very difficult foreign questions, the amicable solution of which would be greatly aided, as he now perceives, by evidence given to the world at large that the United States intends to outrank all other nations, excepting one only, in the extent of its naval equipment.

"Out of Politics"

It is highly significant that the big-navy program is adopted in a Democratic Congress. If the Democrats win in the November elections, they will have secured approval for their achievements, including the Naval bill. If the Republicans win, they can justly say that the country was ready to go even farther than the Democrats in providing for national defense. The Naval measure will stand as above parties, and as an expression of the nation's willingness to hold its own and maintain its just position. It is a notable fact that the House abandoned its own Naval bill and adopted the enlarged Senate program by a vote of almost six to one. Only 51 members voted in the negative, while 283 supported the measure. All of the Democrats except 35 and all of the Republicans except 15

Not for Aggression

It is not in the least that we are as a nation planning any aggressions. We are under no temptations to be assertive or offensive. But we

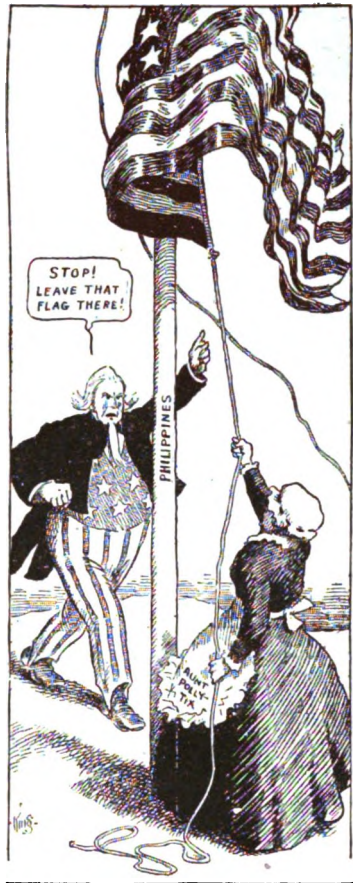
cannot have the smallest assurance that meekness or forbearance or modest devotion to strictly domestic and parochial affairs would save us from the necessity of being prepared to uphold our rights. If we owe anything to the cause of peace in the world and sanity in the affairs of nations, we must be well enough equipped to exert a salutary influence. Take, for example, the case of Japan. There is no element in the United States that seeks a war with Japan or with any other country. But there would seem to be in Japan at least two important elements, one of which would deplore trouble with the United States and the other of which would be ready enough to engage in war with us if a wholly favorable opportunity were presented. This turbulent period in Japan's history will, let us hope, be lived down in the course of the next decade or two. The best elements in Japan wish peace and friendship. A strong American navy would, in this situation, not merely protect the United States as against the misfortune of trouble with Japan, but it would also protect the wisest and best elements in Japan against being overruled by the turbulent imperialists whose ambitions are a possible menace to peace.

*Reckless
Sailors
Making Port*

There has been something rather refreshing in the elasticity, not to say the recklessness, of the party in power at Washington in its treatment of all sorts of public questions. Many fine things stand in the record to its credit, while as respects some other things it has



"I SHOULD WORRY!"
From the *World* (New York)



© John T. McCutcheon

A WARNING FROM UNCLE SAM

(This is one of the cartoons that appeared several months ago, when the Clarke amendment passed the Senate, and indicates the strong public protest that led the Democrats to reverse their policy and retain the Philippines.)—From the *Tribune* (Chicago).

been floundering and blundering along, yet with a main drift and tendency towards common sense and right solutions. Thus a few weeks ago the Democratic party had decided, all of a sudden, to cast the Philippines adrift. The Democratic Senate voted for what amounted to an immediate renunciation of our sovereignty, with a full withdrawal before the end of another Presidential term. President Wilson acquiesced in this panicky performance, and it was planned to put the Senate amendments to the Philippine bill through the House of Representatives without change, in order to prevent the risk and delay of sending the measure to a conference committee. Previously, the Democratic House had been even more opposed to our Philippine occupation than had the Democratic Senate. But public opinion, regardless of party, began to express itself so

sharply as to the cowardice and the folly of the Clarke "scuttle" amendment, that even the House was obliged to pause and give heed to the voice of the country. Thus the measure went to conference committee after all, and the Clarke amendment was eliminated. The St. Louis platform meanwhile had side-stepped the scuttle.

We Are Keeping the Philippines

The Philippine bill was put upon its final passage in the Senate on August 16, and was adopted by a vote of 37 to 22. Of those who opposed it, all but one were Republicans. These twenty-one Republicans were also opposed to the Clarke amendment, but against the bill as a whole because of its general character, or because of the preamble that is retained. As it now goes on the statute-books, the measure is a new fundamental charter of government for the Philippine Islands. A few years ago we gave the Filipinos an elective Assembly as the popular branch of a local legislature, of which the Philippine Commission was the upper branch. The new law changes all that, and provides for a Senate to be elected by popular vote. Under the law as existing till now, the number of voters in the Philippines has been about 200,000. The new law so extends the franchise as to increase this number to about 800,000. The Philippine Commission, whose members are appointed by the President of the United States, becomes a thing of the past under the new law. There will remain, however, a Governor-General appointed by the President and a Vice-Governor, also to be appointed. The bill contains many provisions, the application of which to Philippine conditions will be duly set forth for our readers in a special article in the near future.

The Philippines also "Out of Politics"

The moral effect of the elimination of the Clarke amendment can hardly be overstated. It means that the Democratic leaders at Washington, including the President and those responsible for legislation, who had only a few weeks ago definitely determined to abandon the Philippines, have been impelled by the force of public opinion to change their position. And this they have done with celerity, and with striking freedom from any sort of fixed convictions. The measure as adopted contains the original Jones preamble, which declares it to be the purpose of the American people to withdraw from the Philippines when the people of the archipelago are able

to maintain a responsible government and go it alone as a separate nation. But this preamble amounts to nothing except a guess which will not be accepted in any quarter as having concrete significance. A prematurely created Philippine nation would be far worse than Mexico. It would become not only a scene of internal chaos, but a bone of contention among rival powers and a cause of civil and foreign wars. Few regions in the whole world have as much of freedom, justice, and opportunity as the Philippine Islands now have under the friendly tutelage of Uncle Sam. We have assumed a responsibility for the welfare of the people within the islands and for the protection of international interests. This highly "temperamental" Administration—now cheerfully changing its mind and accepting the public view—will stand up to its duty and carry on our useful work (in so far as it may be possible under the new law which makes undue haste). And doubtless a part of the Administration's reasons for adopting the big-navy plan is to be found in its understanding that our position in the Pacific Ocean, including our sovereignty at Manila, must be fully upheld.

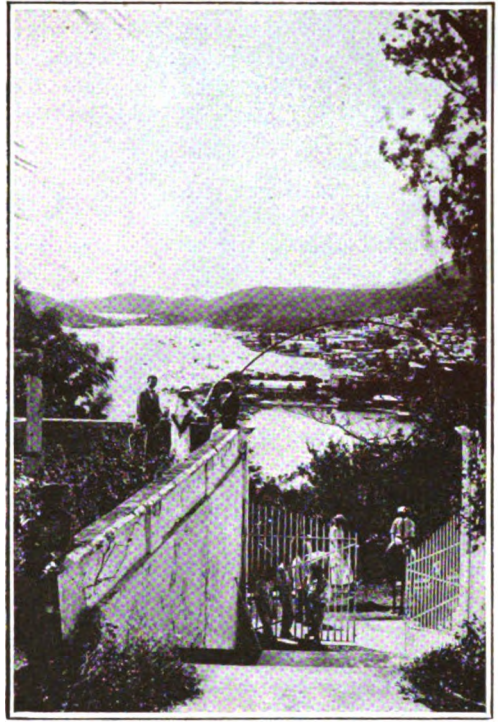
Getting a Few Things Settled

There are some people whose thinking is so shallow that they believe it to be a sign of political health and vigor if a Government and a country are struggling always between different opinions, so that there can be no such thing as a settled national policy with respect to any matter domestic or foreign. But party strife is injurious, except as the areas of strife are steadily diminishing by reason of discussion and study, so that partisanship may not disturb the essential unity of a country that ought to go forward harmoniously. It was sixteen years ago that the Democratic party, under Mr. Bryan's lead, made its great "anti-imperialism" campaign. It is only now, when intrusted with full power, that the Democratic party has found out that there is a real American policy pertaining to the position we now occupy in the world, and that there is nothing imperialistic about that policy. They themselves, in deliberately killing the Clarke amendment, have identified themselves with the facts of our nation's position and duty. They are getting in line with American history—a great public gain. Let it be noted that at this time, when in full control of the Government, and with unlimited power to carry out their sixteen-year-old promises, the Democrats have once for

all changed their minds and decided to keep the Philippines. In taking this step they have made a decision fraught with important consequences. Many a volume of future history will be written upon events and situations growing out of this decision.

**Adopting the
Caribbean
Policy**

Furthermore, at this very moment, when deciding to hold our insular possessions in the Pacific, the Democrats have decided to extend and strengthen our hold in the West Indies. They are, rather awkwardly, learning things and accepting responsibility. They have made a treaty with Denmark for the purchase of the Danish islands that lie not far from the eastern coast of Porto Rico. We have asked Mr. Stoddard to write of these islands and the West Indian situation, and his highly instructive article will be found beginning on page 292 of our present number. This Administration has now decided to maintain our Caribbean policies, bringing Haiti as well as Santo Domingo under our protection and to a certain extent under our control, while entering into close relations with Nicaragua—from which country we have obtained two new coaling stations, one on the Atlantic and the other on the Pacific. If the treaty with Denmark is duly ratified, we obtain the famous harbor of Charlotte Amalie, which has great advantages as a naval station. The unfortunate and ill-conceived treaty with Colombia, so



A GLIMPSE OF THE HARBOR OF CHARLOTTE AMALIE

shockingly discreditable to this Administration, seems to have been tacitly abandoned. It is not likely that the President was personally responsible in any way for the drafting or negotiation of this indefensible and one-sided instrument. Now that the Democrats are becoming adjusted to the burdens of responsibility, they are less likely to do freaky and foolish things.

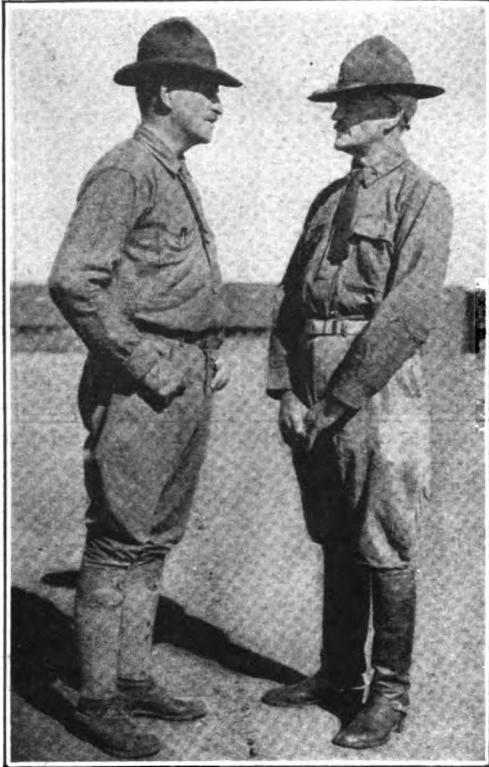


A. NEW SENTRY IN THE CARIBBEAN SEA
From the News (Dayton)

**The Great
Army Bill**

The Army appropriation bill of the present session, as it passed the House in the early summer, called for a total amount only about half as large as the Senate made it by its amendments toward the end of July. The Senate voted to spend on the army almost exactly the amount that it voted on behalf of the navy, which was \$315,000,000. President Wilson supported the Senate amendments in both cases. As we have shown, he secured, by a vote of almost six to one, the acquiescence of the House in the Senate naval plans. He did not secure the acceptance in the House of the Senate's army provisions, but in conference committee a result was secured that adds \$85,000,000 to the sum provided in the original House bill, while cutting down about \$45,000,000 from the Senate measure. Thus the Army bill, as finally

perfected and adopted, calls for the expenditure of \$267,597,000. As we have remarked concerning the Naval bill, so we may say of the Army bill, that it appropriates by far the largest sum we have ever spent for military purposes in time of peace. The Naval bill marks the full acceptance by the nation of a large navy as a matter of public policy. The Army bill marks the acceptance by the President and the Democratic party of the doc-



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A CALL ON GENERAL PERSHING

(Mr. Robert Bacon, of New York [on the left], recently called upon General Pershing in northern Mexico.)

trine that the country must make military preparation for defense at any cost.

Unfortunately, however, we have not yet found a national policy as to what is meant by military preparedness. The Army Reorganization Act, which has been explained and characterized in previous numbers, will in our judgment prove a highly expensive failure. It contains no important principle that is not fundamentally wrong. The amount of money we are spending upon the army would suffice to train every boy in the United States

and make the country invincible. Our standing army of enlisted men is wholly obsolete in type and plan. Its trained officers are representative of the nation, but its enlisted men are not. The so-called "federalized" National Guard is a foredoomed failure. The party in power has finally waked up, and has voted an immense grant of money for an army. But it has not faced the real question of the citizen's duty, and we are left with nothing that could be relied upon in an emergency. It is to be wished that the nation might learn the full lesson to be derived from the preposterous experiences of the past three months in the movement of the National Guard to camps in Texas and the Southwest, on the theory that the country was somehow being defended thereby against border raids or invasions from Mexico. Those experiences will have sounded the knell of the "federalized" National Guard system. We are paying a heavy price for the lesson; but if we learn it thoroughly the investment will be worth many times the money.

Costs of the Mexican Policy

It had been intended to pay all the swollen bills for army and navy—and for other outlays pertaining to the protection of the country in a period of emergency—by means of additional taxes rather than by loans. But quite unexpectedly, on August 17, the ruling Democratic majority of the Senate's Finance Committee reported in favor of a loan of \$130,000,000 to meet the financial burden of the Mexican policy up to the end of the year. This reversal of plan was announced as having full Administration approval. It has always been customary to meet extra expenditures due to the making of war by borrowing money. The Pershing expedition into Mexico was invasion on a bold scale, and would have been regarded as an act of war if there had been any government in Mexico able to act. As matters stand, the Carranza government has so asserted itself as to compel the northward movement of the Pershing army. In view of the mobilization of the National Guard, it is evident that the Administration regarded intervention in the full sense as inevitable. There is no fairly plausible explanation of the Pershing expedition, followed by the movement of the National Guard to the border, except that the Administration felt that the country was demanding immediate intervention, and there was no other available way of accepting the mandate.

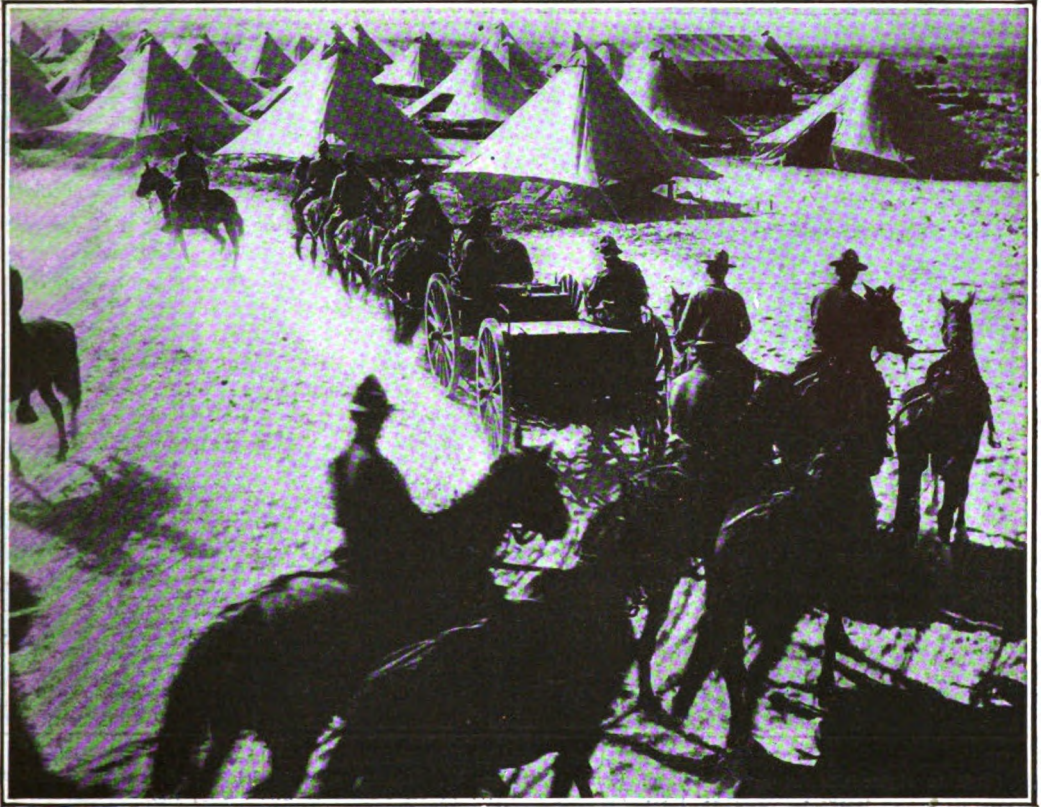


Photo by Paul Thompson

THE FIRST MASSACHUSETTS ARTILLERY GOING OUT FOR PRACTICE MANEUVERS AT FORT BLISS, TEXAS

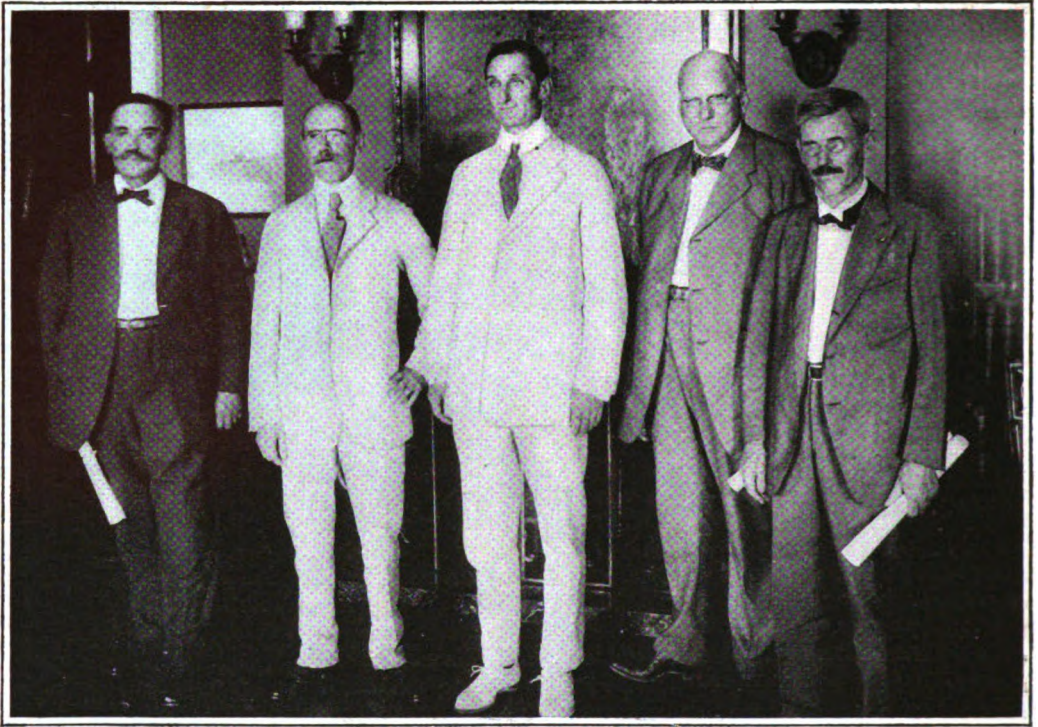
*A Sad
Fiasco*

There has never been any serious menace of our border from Mexico, but on the contrary there has been a series of menaces against Mexico on the part of our Government. Let no one suppose that the mobilization of the National Guard had any reference to the patrolling of the border. It was a massing of men for the invasion and conquest of Mexico. But conditions in July and August gave no excuse or pretext for any such action; and so the National Guard is detained in unfit camps, in an unbearable summer climate, rendering no service of any kind. Perhaps, however, the unhappy plight of the guardsmen is performing the larger public service of exposing the iniquities of a law that has permitted so unfortunate an episode. A small fraction of the money that our Mexican blunders are costing the country—if paid over to Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona—would easily have policed the border communities with local men, fit for the work. The indefinite retention of the National Guard in these Southwestern camps is no longer susceptible of any satisfactory explanation. Weeks ago we acceded to Carran-

za's proposal for a joint commission, but as these comments were sent to the press the American members, excepting Secretary Lane, had not even been appointed. One or two men who had been invited, including Justice Brandeis, had declined to serve.

*The Militiamen
on the Border*

Approximately 92,000 militiamen are now near the Mexican border, located in the districts of El Paso and San Antonio, Texas, and Douglas, Arizona. Although more than half of these men (about 55,000) come from the Eastern Department—the bulk of their number being furnished by the two States of New York and Pennsylvania—this department is still short of war strength by nearly 50,000 men. The same condition holds good in the other departments. This shortage, and the difficulty of obtaining further recruits, may have influenced the President in issuing an order for 25,000 more men on August 12. The order was quickly rescinded, however, owing to the pending railroad situation and the possibility of a strike. The militiamen have now been on the border for several months, and have by this time become some-



THE NEW FEDERAL FARM LOAN BOARD AT WASHINGTON LAST MONTH

(Left to right: Charles E. Lobdell, of Kansas; George W. Norris, of Philadelphia; Secretary McAdoo; Herbert Quick, of West Virginia, and W. S. A. Smith, of Sioux City, Ia.)

what accustomed to the army routine, and the climate, including an occasional hurricane. Their general health is good, and such unsatisfactory conditions as may have been due to preparing camp and establishing living facilities in so bad a climate for a large number of men, have been partly remedied. The troops are sent out on maneuvers, and are acquiring military knowledge.

*Congress
Still in
Session*

The attempts to bring the session of Congress to an end in August failed completely, and little hope was offered for the fixing of a September date. The simple truth is that the conditions of the country and the world are such that Congress ought to remain in continuous session. It is natural that members should desire vacation, and quite plain that the pending Congressional elections should make them anxious to spend a few weeks in their home districts. But as long as the National Guard is on the borders of Mexico, public safety requires that Congress should be on duty at Washington. Meanwhile some remarkable measures are undergoing completion and finding their way to the statute-books.

*Farm-Loan
Banks*

We are publishing an article explaining the new Farm Loans Act. The law provides for a board, of which Mr. McAdoo, Secretary of the Treasury, is ex-officio chairman. The executive officer of the board is Mr. George W. Norris, of Pennsylvania. Other members are Judge Charles Lobdell, of Kansas, experienced in the farm-mortgage business; Capt. W. S. A. Smith, of Iowa; and Mr. Herbert Quick, a well-known writer for farm periodicals, now resident in West Virginia. The intention of the law is to make it easy for farmers to obtain capital at from five to six per cent., for use in their business, on a plan which gives them a long time to repay the loan in instalments. The law seems complicated when one reads its provisions, but it may prove very workable when it once gets into operation. We are of the opinion that the law will prove a great success in some of its features, and that its indirect results will benefit agriculture. Mr. McAdoo and the members of the board are now touring the country with a view to marking out the twelve districts within which to establish the proposed twelve central Farm Loan Banks of the system. Hear-

ings were set for the Eastern part of the country in the last days of August, for the West in early September, and for the South at a later time. We hope every locality will try to make this law help its farmers.

*Children
and the
Constitution*

We referred also last month to the definite prospect of the acceptance by this Democratic Congress of the old Beveridge Child Labor bill, which excludes from interstate commerce the products of mills and factories employing children under the age of fourteen. The age limit for mines and quarries is sixteen. Both Democrats and Republicans had opposed this measure when Senator Beveridge, of Indiana, so gallantly and eloquently advocated it ten years ago. The most intense opposition came from those interested in Southern cotton mills, and they took refuge in "State's rights" arguments and in ridiculing the extension of the interstate commerce principle. On President Wilson's urgent demand, the Senate passed the bill on August 8. It had previously gone through the House. Ten Southern Senators voted against it. The vote was 52 for and 12 against. One year is allowed before the measure takes practical effect. The remarkable change of opinion, by which the sharpest critics of this bill had become its advocates, is not wholly easy to explain. President Wilson himself had been on record to the effect that the Beveridge bill was an "obviously absurd" stretch of the power of Congress over commerce. But the constitutional lawyers have become social reformers, and they waive the fundamental law in favor of the country's children.

*Good Roads
and Farm
Progress*

Our readers will find in this number of the REVIEW an excellent article prepared at our request by the Hon. David F. Houston, Secretary of Agriculture, explaining the new Federal good roads act and showing how it will bear upon the highway systems of the several States. Perhaps its most important result will be the stimulus it will afford to what is

now a nation-wide movement for improving the highways, together with the benefit that will come from the Government's supervision of methods used to obtain desired ends. As Dr. Houston's article shows, the new measure is in accord with the efforts and views of the Department of Agriculture. We shall in the near future publish an article setting forth the constructive policies and programs of Secretary Houston, and the remarkable extent to which he has been able to carry a series of measures through Congress. The Secretary has a profound grasp of the principles of economics as applied to agriculture. Without neglecting anything that pertains to larger and better farm production, he has devoted himself especially to the farmer's problems of marketing and finance. Systematic and highly intelligent study has resulted in achievements that few people have appreciated in their entirety and in their aspects as parts of a consistent and notable policy. The Department, under Secretary Houston's lead, is doing a vast work for the betterment of rural life throughout the nation.



HON. DAVID F. HOUSTON, SECRETARY OF AGRICULTURE

*Government
and Ships
of Commerce*

The continued sitting of Congress gave opportunity to force the Administration's merchant shipping bill to a vote. Our readers will remember the desperate fight against this bill early last year, resulting in its defeat by reason of the refusal of a group of Democratic Senators to support the President and Secretary McAdoo in their demand for the measure. The shipping bill originated with the idea that our Government could acquire the interned German vessels by purchase, and put them into the South American trade at a moment when there was desperate need of shipping facilities. Long before the bill came to a vote, however, the circumstances had been greatly altered. The idea of buying the German ships had been abandoned. This year the shipping bill has been so much modified in its details that the group of Democratic Senators, for whom Senator Bankhead acted as spokesman, withdrew objections and decided to vote in favor of the

bill. They were not converted to a belief in it, but were willing to support it as a party measure in view of its changes to meet their objections. The Republicans argued last month that Mr. McAdoo's shipping board could buy no ships where none were for sale, and could build no ships in yards already unable to take any more contracts. They also said that an appropriation of \$50,000,000 could accomplish nothing toward creating a merchant marine that ought to cost twenty times as much, while the only effect of the bill would be to bring foreign-built vessels into the coastwise trade of the United States. As the bill stands, it does not seem to us to be a dangerous measure, while on the other hand we are not able to see how any great assistance can be given under its provisions to the cause of an American merchant marine. The bill had passed the House some time ago, and it was at length carried in the Senate by a vote of 38 to 21, on August 18.

*Preparing
to Limit
Migration*

It was believed that the Administration had preferred not to have the Immigration bill brought forward in the face of the pending election. President Wilson had two years ago vetoed a bill applying the educational test. But Congress and the country are overwhelmingly in favor of passing at this time, when there is comparatively little migratory movement, a measure that can be ready for application to conditions that may arise at the end of the war. Wages have become very high, and the "labor interests," so called, do not wish to see our labor market demoralized by an unprecedented influx from Europe. Congress received the unexpected hint last month that President Wilson might change his mind and sign an Immigration bill. In any case, Congress could pass it over his veto by tremendous majorities if the bill should be brought forward. While it was not certain that the Immigration bill would be pushed, the chances seemed reasonably favorable. From many standpoints it would be desirable, after the termination of the war, that there should be no great and sudden shifts of foreign population. It might be far better, however, if we should apply some other method of restriction rather than the reading test.

*The Political
Campaign*

No matter how seriously campaign committees may take themselves, it is only a little that they can do to influence or modify results in

times when the public is making up its mind in its own way. The little, however, is always worth doing if performed intelligently. As yet, the Wilson supporters have shown more vim and more skill than the organizations that are working for Hughes. Mr. Wilson has the great advantage of being on the inside track. He can divert attention from past mistakes by achieving fresh triumphs. He has been using Congress to put new and telling items into the list of his achievements. The country has simply to make up its mind—looking ahead at the uncertainties of the next four years—whether it would rather have Woodrow Wilson or Charles E. Hughes as the man in command of our ship of state. If Roosevelt had been named, the contrast would have been a little bolder and the campaign would have taken on a more positive character. What Mr. Hughes is now doing is to build himself up in the presence of the country as a man of leadership, firmness, and power. It will be impossible to put much of bitterness or of partisanship into this year's national campaign.

*Senate
Candidates*

It is likely that the Republicans will make gains in the Senate and House, whether or not they acquire control of the next Congress. The election in Maine—to the circumstances of



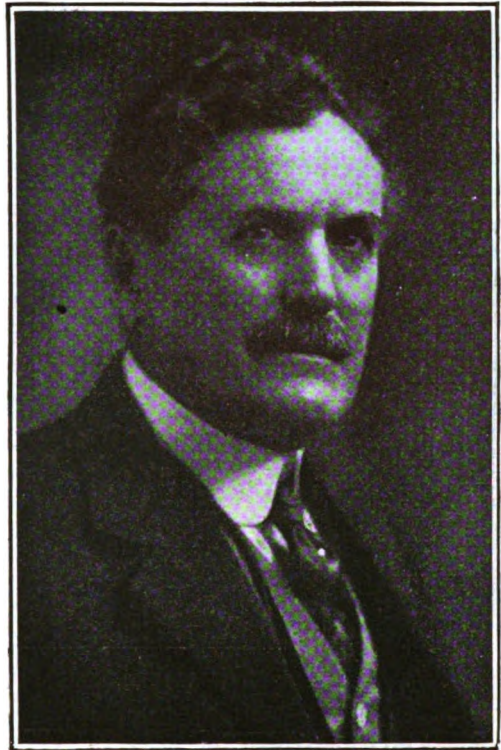
HON. HARRY S. NEW, OF INDIANAPOLIS
(Mr. New and Mr. Watson are Republican candidates for the Senate against the Democratic incumbents, Senators Kern and Taggart.)



© Harris & Ewing, Washington

HON. PHILANDER C. KNOX

(Republican candidate for the Senate in Pennsylvania)



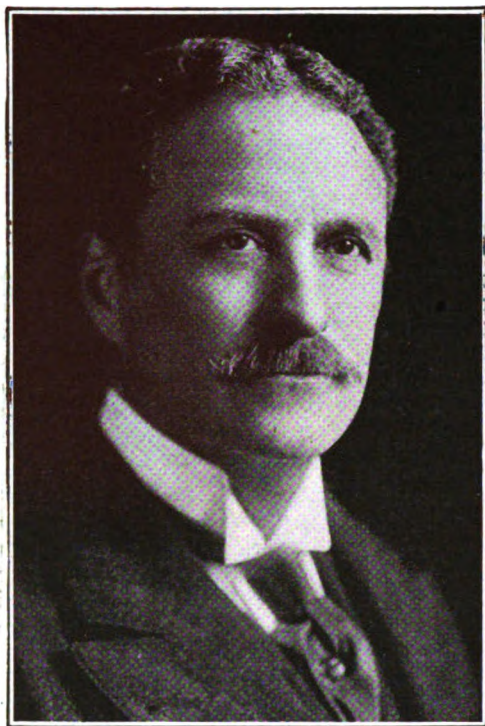
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HON. MYRON T. HERRICK

(Republican candidate for the Senate in Ohio)

which we are devoting a later paragraph—falling almost two months earlier than the November date adopted by practically all of the other States, is always anticipated by politicians with the keenest interest. Regardless of the contest between Wilson and Hughes, the Maine election may give some inkling as to party gains or losses in the next Congress. The popular election of Senators was regarded by Mr. Root and others as likely to keep the best and ablest men from becoming candidates. It is operating, however, much in the same way as elections for Governor. Thus the Republicans of Ohio have chosen the Hon. Myron T. Herrick as their candidate for the Senate, while Senator Pomerene, the Democratic incumbent, will run for another term. No Republican could better represent Ohio than Mr. Herrick. We mentioned last month the notable success of Hon. Frank B. Kellogg in the Minnesota Republican primaries. Hon. Philander C. Knox, former Secretary of State, is Pennsylvania's Republican selection for the Senate. In California, Governor Johnson is the Progressive nominee for the Senate and is engaged in a bitter contest for Republican endorsement.

New York "Standard Bearers" The nominating primaries in the State of New York will be held on September 19. The Democrats, meeting informally at Saratoga last month, accepted Judge Seabury as their candidate for Governor and Mr. William F. McCombs for the United States Senate. These selections will not be opposed in the primaries. Seabury is strong with the progressive and reform elements in the State, and McCombs is well known as the young lawyer who organized the Wilson movement some five years ago and who became chairman of the Democratic National Committee. Governor Whitman has expected the Republicans to renominate him, and Hon. William M. Calder, of Brooklyn, a former Member of Congress of excellent repute and good record, had expected to be nominated for the Senate with little or no opposition. On August 18, however, there was announced the candidacy for the Senate of Hon. Robert Bacon, and it was stated that State Senator William M. Bennett, of New York City, would enter the primaries for the Governorship. Mr. Bacon is one of the foremost citizens of New York, was Assistant Secretary of State under Mr. Root, and



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HON. ROBERT BACON, OF NEW YORK

was Secretary in his own name for several months at the end of the Roosevelt administration. He was appointed as Ambassador to France by President Taft. His time in the last three or four years has been given to educational and philanthropic work, and to public service in various forms. He is one of the leaders in the national defense movement, has set an example by taking the summer training of the Plattsburg camp, and is at the head of the National Security League. He advocates universal military training and service.

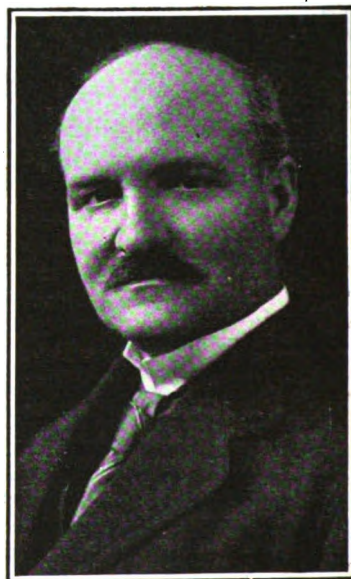
The Hughes Campaign

The Presidential campaign was virtually opened on July 31 with the formal acceptance of the Republican nomination by ex-Justice Hughes at Carnegie Hall, in New York City. On one of the hottest evenings of midsummer Mr. Hughes delivered his speech of acceptance before an enthusiastic throng of Republicans and Progressives. Colonel Roosevelt was present and shared with the candidate the honors of the occasion. The address was forceful and maintained the high level of intelligence and sincerity of conviction which the public has always associated with Mr. Hughes' utterances. His criticism of the

Wilson policies was largely directed against the Administration's course in Mexico during the past three years. In his advocacy of preparedness and a federal enlistment of a citizen reserve, Mr. Hughes gave due credit to the Roosevelt leadership for arousing national sentiment. He declared himself in favor of a protective tariff developed on scientific lines and for "America first and America efficient."

Appealing to the West

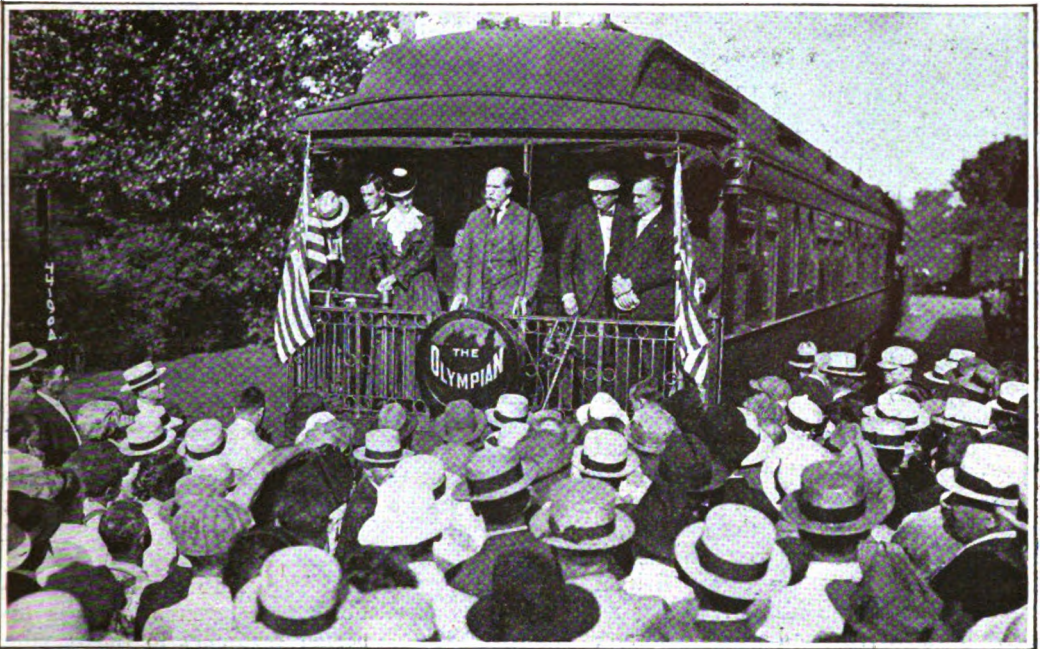
Within a week after the notification ceremonies Mr. Hughes left New York for a month of speechmaking in Western cities. During the first three days of the trip he addressed large gatherings at Detroit, Chicago, St. Paul, and Minneapolis. Everywhere the crowds showed their interest in the personality of



HON. WILLIAM M. CALDER

(Formerly in Congress from a Brooklyn district, now seeking the Senatorial nomination)

the candidate not less than in the issues that he discussed before them. He charged the Wilson administration with wastefulness, extravagance, unfit appointments in the diplomatic and scientific services of the Government, vacillation and inefficiency in its foreign policies, and failure to protect American interests and rights. In the second week of his tour Mr. Hughes reached the Pacific coast, addressing meetings at all the important cities of Washington, Oregon, and California. In the equal-suffrage States his declaration in favor of a federal woman-suffrage amendment won for him many sup-



© by International Film Service

CHARLES EVANS HUGHES SPEAKING FROM THE PLATFORM OF HIS CAR AT ST. PAUL, MINN.

porters, and a conference of the National Woman's Party has pledged itself to work for his election. In his first month of active campaigning Mr. Hughes has made himself personally known to thousands of voters in the West to whom he had been only a name.

The Maine Election

Traditions die hard in American politics. Many a gray-haired voter heard in youth the maxim, "As goes Maine, so goes the Union," and the September election in the Pine Tree State is watched with just as keen an interest, every four years, as if it could really be depended upon to forecast the nation's decision two months later. Maine for a few brief weeks becomes the nation's fighting ground. The leaders of the contending hosts meet there in pitched battle. This year the principal orators of the President's Cabinet—possibly Mr. Wilson himself—stand forth in impressive array against ex-President Roosevelt, ex-Justice Hughes, Senators Borah, Harding, Lodge, Sherman, and Weeks, Representatives Bennett, Chandler, Foss, and Gardner, and ex-Senator Burton, to name only a few of the Republican speakers. The election will take place on the 11th. Two United States Senators and four Representatives are to be chosen, besides a great number of local officials. Governor Oakley C. Curtis, Democrat, is a can-

didate to succeed himself, and is opposed by the Hon. Carl E. Milliken, Republican. For the six-year Senatorial term the present Senator, Charles F. Johnson, Democrat, is opposed by Col. Frederick Hale, a son of former Senator Eugene Hale. The contestants for the unexpired term of the late Senator Burleigh are Prof. Kenneth M. Field, Democrat, and ex-Governor Bert M. Fernald, Republican.

A Bad Month for Crops

The indicated wheat crop for 1916 was whittled down in July by unsuitable weather, rust, and other plant diseases and insect depredations to 654,000,000 bushels, as against more than a billion last year. The government experts estimate that home consumption will take up all but 34,000,000 bushels, which, with the carry-over from last year of 75,000,000, will give only slightly more than 100,000,000 bushels for export. The government crop report of August 8 was followed by excited movements of wheat prices which showed increases of 12 cents a bushel in a single day's trading, and reached \$1.50 for future deliveries. The corn crop has suffered, too; but the indicated yield of 2,777,000,000 bushels is still above the five-year average. The International Institute of Agriculture at Rome estimates the whole world's crops for 1916 to be smaller than

last year but large enough to bulk above the five-year average.

Our New Loan to Great Britain On August 17 the terms of the new American loan to the British Government were announced. The amount is to be \$250,000,000, making it the second largest loan ever offered in the new world, the largest being the Anglo-French loan of half a billion negotiated last October. This money will cost Great Britain something more than 6 per cent. To the individual American investor it will be offered at $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. It runs for only two years. A comparison of this interest yield with the yield at present prices from the "Anglo-French" bonds of last October, which, although bearing the joint guarantee of Great Britain and France, return about 6.25 per cent. to the investor, brings out the significant difference in the two operations. Last autumn Great Britain and France scouted the idea of adding any security to their joint and several guarantees of the great loan, and it was successfully negotiated without collateral. This autumn the collateral is evidently necessary to attract investors. It consists of choice bonds and stocks of American corporations and of neutral foreign governments to a value, at present prices, of \$300,000,000, giving a margin of security of 20 per cent. over the face of the loan. This new fashion of Allied borrowing had already been set by France in the \$100,000,000 loan arranged in America this summer with collateral security supporting it. The two issues present an extraordinarily favorable opportunity for the American investor who wishes to hold short-term securities.

Totals of European Borrowings Here The transactions just described bring the total of American loans to belligerent European governments during the first two years of the war up to \$1,115,000,000. In addition, Canada and Newfoundland have borrowed from us, including provincial and municipal loans, \$243,000,000, and neutral governments \$111,000,000. The total British borrowings have been \$550,000,000; French, \$43,000,000; Russian, \$260,000,000; Italian, \$25,000,000, and German, \$10,000,000. These huge and abnormal transactions, together with the flow of gold to America and the re-selling to us of American securities held abroad have had a profound effect on our former position as a debtor nation. Just before the war it was generally esti-

mated that we were using \$5,000,000,000 of European capital, represented by stocks and bonds of American corporations held abroad. Since the war began we have been shipping to Europe such a vast excess of goods over the quantity imported that we have had to lend our foreign customers in the aggregate nearly \$1,500,000,000 to help them to pay us for their unprecedented purchases; we have taken \$600,000,000 of their gold supply, and they have resold to us the securities of our own concerns to an amount, estimated by the *Wall Street Journal*, of \$2,000,000,000. The cause of this sudden cancellation of our debts to Europe is shown clearly in the figures of our trade balance for the fiscal year ending June 30 last—the total transactions of \$6,500,000,000 leaving for the single year a balance in our favor of no less than \$2,136,000,000.

The Revenue Bill in the Senate On August 16 the Administration's new revenue bill was reported favorably to the Senate. Its sponsors expect it to raise \$205,000,000. A new provision is a tax on the capital and surplus of corporations of 50 cents for each thousand dollars, with an exemption of \$99,000. Ten per cent. is to be levied on the net profits from the sale of war munitions, and five per cent. on net profits from the sale by any corporation of materials entering into the manufacture of munitions. The last two taxes are to cease one year after the termination of the European War. Many special taxes are added—on brokers, amusement enterprises, tobacco, bonds, stock certificates, agreements to sell, deeds, entries into and withdrawals from warehouses, insurance policies, steamship and Pullman tickets. Not satisfied with the previous increases, in the House, of the income tax rates, the Senate fixed surtaxes on incomes of from half a million to one million at 10 per cent.; more than a million up to a million and a half, 11 per cent.; more than a million and a half up to two million, 12 per cent., and on still larger incomes, 13 per cent. Inheritance taxes also are imposed: estates between \$450,000 and \$1,000,000 pay 5 per cent., with increases up to 10 per cent. on fortunes of over \$5,000,000.

Railroad Men Vote to Strike The vote of the four railroad Brotherhoods taken through the the summer showed an overwhelming majority, over 90 per cent., in favor of placing the power to call a strike in the hands of the men representing the union

workers in the negotiation with the railroad managers. Within a very few days it became apparent that these negotiations were at the point of failure. The employees' representatives were emphatic and loud in their statements that the American people would suffer nothing less than a total tie-up of the great transportation systems unless the demands for an eight-hour day and time and a half pay for overtime were granted. They continued to refuse the offers made by the railroad managers to arbitrate these questions along with certain counter claims from the employers.

The President Steps In

It was at this ominous juncture, in the face of a threatened strike of 400,000 railroad workers and, probably, important additional sympathetic "walkouts," that President Wilson took the matter in hand and conferred, at the White House, with the railroad labor leaders and the managers' committee. There were gen-

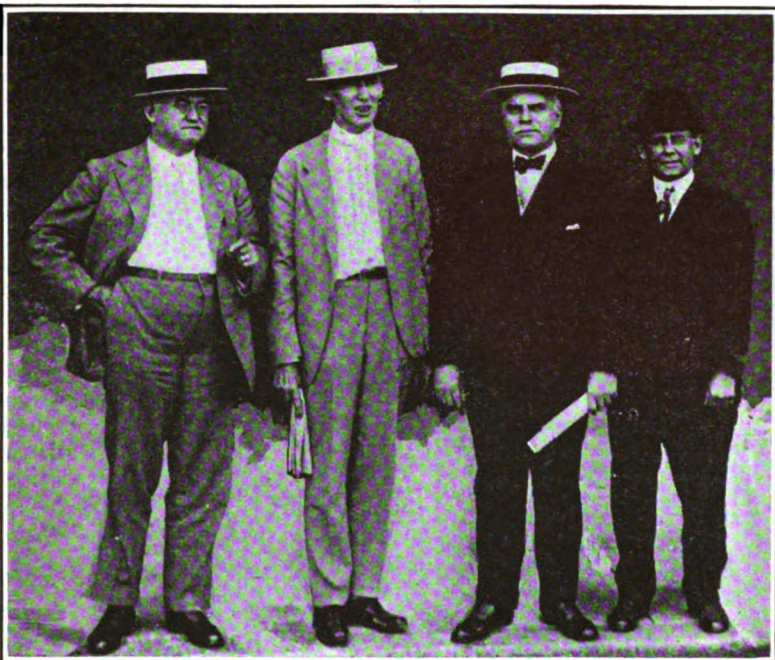


International Film Service

THE FEDERAL BOARD OF MEDIATION AND CONCILIATION

(From left to right: Martin A. Knapp, William L. Chambers, and G. W. W. Hanger)

Sept.—2



Photograph by Harris & Ewing, Washington

THE CHIEFS OF THE FOUR RAILWAY BROTHERHOODS, WHO LED THE FIGHT FOR SHORTER HOURS

(From left to right: W. G. Lee, president of the Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen; A. B. Garretson, president of the Order of Railway Conductors; Warren S. Stone, Grand Chief of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers; and W. S. Carter, president of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen.)

eral expressions of relief and approval when the President's move became known, and a popular conviction that his vigorous action in the matter, backed up by the enormous prestige and power his office gives in any such situation, would save the public from the unthinkable calamity of a countrywide stoppage of railroad traffic. The task of settling the controversy, even temporarily, proved, however, most difficult. It was commonly understood that the general line of the President's proposal was that the eight-hour day should be put into actual practise at once, its workings to be studied and the railroads to have an opportunity to claim a return to ten hours if the shorter day were found unjust; while the overtime pay asked for was to be the subject of investigation. This would clearly have been a victory, if only a partial one, for the labor representatives. Nor is it likely that the committee of railroad managers

felt they had the power to make such an agreement. Their counter proposal, which impressed the country as extremely fair, was that the whole matter should be arbitrated, the President to appoint the arbi-

trators. When, on August 17, Mr. Wilson found the opposing committees he had been talking to could not get together, he sent for the presidents of the railroads involved, in order to have a body in conference which was empowered to make decisions of the largest importance and on any lines of suggestion, new or old. While the very dangerous controversy was, at the time this magazine went to press at an *impasse*, the public and press had a strong feeling that the President's timely and earnest interposition would in some way save the country from a strike.



Photograph by American Press Assn.

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MR. THEODORE P. SHONTS MR. AUGUST BELMONT
CHIEF REPRESENTATIVES OF THE COMPANIES CONTROLLING NEW YORK
CITY'S TRANSIT SYSTEM



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THE CHIEF REPRESENTATIVES OF THE ORGANIZATION OF STREET CAR
MOTORMEN AND CONDUCTORS

(Mr. William B. Fitzgerald [on the left] is organizer, and Mr. William D. Mahon is president of the Amalgamated Association of Street Car Conductors and Motormen of America.)

In the first week of August New York City was threatened with a traction strike that would have brought discomfort and hardship to millions of men, women, and children. All the surface car lines of the city were involved and the tie-up of so great a system would in itself have been a serious calamity; but there was every reason to expect that the subway and elevated roads would also be affected, so that the most extensive local transit system in the world would be crippled for an indefinite period. The trouble began with strikes on suburban lines connected with the street railways of the metropolis. The men on the suburban roads were better organized than those in the city, but when these had been persuaded by their leaders to make demands for shorter hours, better pay, and recognition of the unions they developed unsuspected strength. They were able to show that street-railway employees in New York receive lower wages than those in other large cities. The companies were determined to maintain an "open shop" and did not look with

favor on any scheme of collective bargaining. Mayor Mitchel and Chairman Straus of the Public Service Commission realized the gravity of the situation and made every effort to bring about mediation. In due time they were successful and a settlement was reached by which the right of the employees to organize and to treat with the companies through committees appointed by themselves is conceded. Provision is made for arbitration of specific grievances relating to hours and wages. The men went back to work without delay, pending the adjustment of differences with their employers through the arbitration scheme provided in the terms of settlement. In the outcome both sides gained, but even more important was the gain of the general public, the third party in the controversy, through the recognition of the principle of mediation by public authorities in a dispute involving the operation of public utilities.

Garment-Makers' Strike at Work

On August 7, the day when a settlement of the street-car strike was announced, more than half of the Jewish and Italian garment-makers of New York, who had been out of work for a period of fourteen weeks, returned to their shops. Since the lockout began, in April, the union had paid out in strike benefits \$750,000. The loss in wages was estimated at \$4,500,000, and the loss in business at nearly ten times that amount. It is a matter of regret that in the terms of the settlement between the workers and the manufacturers no method of arbitration was recognized or adopted. The final appeal is still to the old weapons of lockout and strike. After the experience of the past three months, with 60,000 workers and millions of capital unemployed, it is inconceivable that either of these weapons should be taken up again, save as a last desperate resort.

War-Time Prices

The last weeks of the second year of the world's greatest war brought confused movements in the general rapid trend upward of prices of commodities. With such unheard-of advances as have come in the prices of alcohol, chemicals, zinc, copper, sugar, leather, quicksilver, and many other raw materials and manufactures, it is inevitable that there should be feverish reactions even when the general trend is still upward. Thus in the latter summer weeks of 1916 copper prices were distinctly below the highest, sales being made as low as 24 cents, instead of 29 cents,

reached earlier in the year. The famine prices of alcohol, quicksilver, and zinc, brought about by the unprecedented demands of the war, had broken badly, but were still enormously high as compared with quotations before the autumn of 1914. Gasolene for the present seemed to have reached its peak, and the householder in the East was purchasing it at 23 cents a gallon, two cents lower than its recent high cost. This looks much better than when the predictions of 40-cent gasolene were credited; but it is still bad enough beside the prices of 11 to 13 cents per gallon that prevailed for bulk purchasers two years ago. As told in a preceding paragraph, wheat is on its way toward the highest war prices, and cotton, in the middle of August, was tending toward 15 cents a pound—two and a half times the price at which planters had to sell just after the European conflict broke out. It is a striking item in the array of price changes that, with material and labor costs higher and rising more rapidly than in any other period of this generation, Mr. Ford has announced lower prices for his cars, and his hope that one million will be turned out next year. The Ford car is now procurable for rather less than the cost of a first-class motorcycle.

Military and Naval Training

The Plattsburg work begun last year has been kept up enthusiastically this summer, and all through the months of June, July, and August large contingents of young men have been put through the four weeks' intensive course of military training. The final camp of the season will be held during September, and several thousand more students will take the course. This year has seen the inauguration of the "Naval Plattsburg," the happy inspiration of Assistant Secretary Roosevelt—heartily supported by his chief, Secretary Daniels—which has been planned to do for civilians on the water what the training camps are doing on land. Under the program arranged, some twenty-four hundred men from all over the country, but mainly from the Atlantic States, apportioned among eight battleships, set out on August 15 for a four weeks' cruise. This will not be a yachting jaunt or pleasure party. Real work will fill nearly seventeen hours of the day, the routine including all kinds of service on board ship, as well as drills, lectures, and maneuvers. The course, like that in the military camp at Plattsburg, will be thorough, and the men will return from the cruise not



Photograph by Bain.

NAVAL "ROOKIES" PREPARING THEIR OUTFITS ON THE BATTLESHIP "MAINE"

only better equipped to serve as a potential naval reserve, but inspired with a wholesome interest in Uncle Sam's first line of defense. Increased importance is given to this scheme of training by the new naval bill passed by Congress, which provides not only for many new ships but for a greatly increased naval personnel.

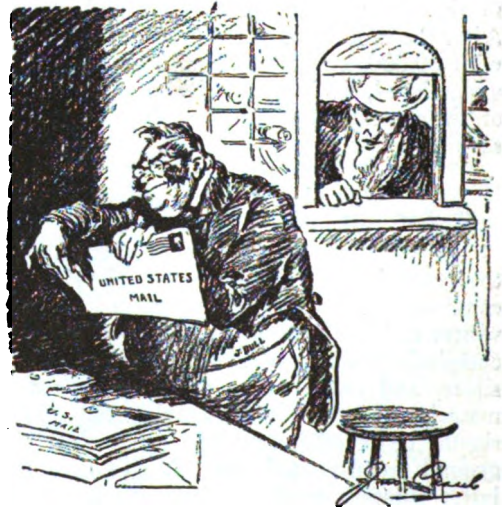
We Turn-Both Cheeks

With the Mexican problem on hand, our State Department has for several months avoided the creation of sharp crises with any of the European belligerents. Never in the history of this country have we suffered such indignities as those about which we have written "notes" to Great Britain. These include the outrageous tampering with American mails, the interference with our proper trade with neutral countries, and finally the "blacklist," which forbids British subjects to do business with a vast number of American firms for reasons wholly outside of the realm of law and right. Quite naturally, England thinks we do not really mind these things, because we have never taken the slightest step to set any one of them right, although the means to correct them all have been available and obvious. It is not so easy to get at Turkey, in which country great American educational institutions like the college at Marsovan (see page 325) have been seized for military purposes, the teaching staff being expelled. Mr. Elkus, the new Ambassador, has departed for Constantinople; but he will be able to do nothing unless the authorities at Washington speak in terms of power, meaning what

they say. Americans have wished good luck to the unarmed commerce-carrying submarines that Germany is plucky enough to send across the Atlantic. But there has been some anxiety here aroused by the reported tendency to resume submarine warfare, in partial neglect of those just rules of international law that Germany and Austria have agreed to observe. It is to be hoped that we shall have no further ground of complaint upon this vexed subject.

*The
Raging
Conflict*

Chronological events in the past month's history of the great war will be found on pages 261 and 262. Our readers will find it worth while to scan these condensed notes, which are prepared with much care. Our contributing war editor, Mr. Simonds, in his notable installment this month, presents strikingly clear pictures and analyses of the concerted movements against Germany and Austria on all the European fronts. The situation in the Balkans remains uncertain. Rumania and Greece continue neutral under difficulties, and Bulgaria begins to realize the dangers of an awaited offensive on the part of the great army under General Sarrail that has been collected at Salonika. The use of artillery during the past month has been wholly unprecedented. While the Allies, especially England and Russia, have at length placed themselves on a full war basis, it is a mistake to suppose that Germany is exhausted or that the end of the war is in sight. It is much to be feared that the struggle will last for another year or two.



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THE MEDDLESOME POSTMASTER
From the *World* (New York)

RECORD OF EVENTS IN THE WAR

(From July 20 to August 19, 1916)

The Last Part of July

July 20.—It is announced at Ottawa that enlistments in Canada number 350,657.

The French renew their offensive on both sides of the Somme River, capturing German trenches on a six-mile front.

The French official observer states that in fifteen days of fighting in the Somme region the French advanced on a front of more than ten miles to a maximum depth of six miles, capturing 80,000 square kilometers of highly organized and fortified field works and 12,000 men.

July 21.—It is reported at Washington that Holland has approached the United States with a suggestion for combined action against restrictions placed by the British Government on neutral trade.

July 22.—Sergius Sazanov, for six years Minister of Foreign Affairs in Russia, resigns because of ill health; Premier Sturmer assumes the office.

Russian troops under General Kuropatkin in the Riga district, at the northern end of the line, penetrate German positions at several points.

July 23.—Great Britain replies to the American protest regarding instances of delay and interference with neutral mails; the reply upholds the efficiency of British censorship rather than argues for the legality of principles involved.

The British begin a new assault on the German line in the Somme district on a seven-mile front, and gain a foothold in the fortified village of Pozieres.

July 24.—Premier Asquith informs the House of Commons that a bill for the immediate institution of Irish Home Rule will not be introduced until the substantial assent of all parties is gained; John Redmond and the Nationalists denounce certain modifications of the original Lloyd-George agreement.

A war credit of \$2,550,000,000 (bringing the total of twelve votes to \$14,160,000,000) is asked of the British House of Commons; the Chancellor of the Exchequer announces that war expenditures now average \$30,000,000 a day.

July 25.—Russia forces capture from the Turks the fortified town of Erzincan.

July 26.—The United States protests to Great Britain "in the most decided terms" against the blacklist forbidding commercial dealings with certain firms and individuals in the United States, and declares that the harsh and disastrous effects upon neutral rights are obvious.

July 28.—Russian armies in northern Galicia capture Brody, an important railway town on the route to Lemberg.

In the British assault on German positions in the Somme region their occupation of Delville Wood and the village of Longueval is completed.

It becomes known that the German government

has caught and executed Capt. Charles Fryatt, of the British merchant service, who is alleged to have attempted to ram a German submarine in March, 1915.

July 29.—In the *Appam* case, a United States Judge at Norfolk holds that the German prize crew lost claim to the British vessel and her cargo by remaining indefinitely and permanently in a neutral port.

The Russian official report recites further gains in the south, including the crossing of the Stokhod River at Gulevichi, in Volhynia, and the capture of 32,000 Austro-Germans within two days.

July 30.—The German Government sums up the situation at the end of the second year of war: Germany and Austria occupy 161,625 square miles of enemy territory, against 67,625 a year ago; the Allies occupy 8250 square miles of Austro-German territory, against 4125 a year ago; Germany, Austria, Bulgaria and Turkey



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THE GERMAN MINE-LAYING SUBMARINE "UC-5," CAPTURED BY THE BRITISH

(The submarine was found in distress last April, off the English coast, by a British destroyer. The crew attempted to blow up their vessel, but the explosion wrecked only the interior. The submarine carried mines—one may be seen on the deck—for automatic launching through gratings on the deck. The British naval ensign flies from the mast, over the German flag.)

have captured 2,678,000 enemy soldiers and 11,000 cannon.

Official German statistics relating to wounded



© American Press Association, New York

A RUSSIAN MACHINE GUN IN POLAND,
IN A FIRST LINE TRENCH

soldiers show that 90.2 per cent return to the front and 1.4 per cent die.

July 31.—Henry Edward Duke is appointed Chief Secretary for Ireland, succeeding Augustine Birrell, who resigned following the rebellion.

The First Week of August

August 1.—The German merchant submarine *Deutschland* makes a successful start from Baltimore on her return journey to Bremen with a cargo of gold, nickel, and rubber; it is understood that many Allied warships, including motor-boats and aeroplanes are patrolling the outlet to the sea.

August 3.—At Verdun, the French reoccupy the village of Fleury in the course of a vigorous counter-offensive.

Sir Roger Casement is hanged at London for high treason in conspiring to cause a revolt in Ireland.

It is learned that the Italian passenger steamer *Letimbro* has been sunk by a submarine in the Mediterranean, with heavy loss of life.

August 4.—The French recapture the Thiaumont field-work for the fourth time, it having been held by the Germans for more than a month.

A Turkish attack upon the British defenses protecting the Suez Canal, at Romani, is decisively repulsed, the Turks losing a fourth of their army.

It is learned that Field Marshal von Hindenberg's control of the German armies on the Russian front has been extended to several Austrian army groups.

August 6.—Russian forces cross the Sereth and Graberka Rivers, and capture six villages from the Austrians.

August 7.—Italian forces on the Isonzo front

capture Monte Sabotino and Monte San Michele, dominating the Gorizia bridgehead; the advance is hailed as Italy's greatest success since entering the war.

The Second Week of August

August 8.—Turkish troops exert pressure upon the Russian line in southern Armenia and force the evacuation of Bitlis and Mush.

August 9.—Italian troops cross the Isonzo River and occupy the Austrian city of Gorizia, taking more than 10,000 prisoners in three days.

The German airships carry out a night attack over the eastern coast of England, dropping bombs.

August 10.—Continued Russian advances in Galicia force the Austrians to evacuate Stanislaw, an important fortress protecting the road to Lemberg.

A fourth offensive movement by the Allied Powers is indicated by the capture of Doiran (forty miles north of Salonica, Greece) from the Bulgarians, by an army of French, British and Serbians under General Sarrail.

August 11.—Turkish pressure forces the Russians to withdraw from Hamadan, Persia.

French troops north of the Somme attack the third German line, capturing trenches and fortified works over a front of four miles.

August 14.—The British House of Commons passes a measure extending the life of the present Parliament until the end of May, 1917.

The Third Week of August

August 15.—The extreme southern wing of the Russian army occupies three villages at the entrance to the Jablonitz Pass through the Carpathian Mountains.

Great Britain's Minister of Munitions, E. S. Montagu, informs the House of Commons that the output of all kinds of guns and ammunition has vastly increased, and that there is no longer fear of shortage.

It is learned that the Italian Dreadnought *Leonardo da Vinci* has been destroyed in the harbor of Taranto by an explosion resulting from a fire.

It is announced at Ottawa that the Canadian troops at the front have been transferred from the Ypres salient to the region of the present offensive at the Somme.

August 16.—French and British attacks on both sides of the Somme River result in the capture of three miles of German trenches.

August 17.—The Russian War Office declares that in the present offensive against Austria (begun on June 4) 358,000 prisoners have been taken.

Announcement is made by New York bankers of a \$250,000,000 two-year 5 per cent loan to Great Britain, secured by bonds and stocks, to be offered to the public on September 1.

August 18.—On the whole front in the Somme region, British and French troops carry out a combined and sustained attack.

The Russians begin an assault upon the enemy's positions at the Hungarian end of the Jablonitz Pass through the Carpathian Mountains.

RECORD OF OTHER EVENTS

(From July 20 to August 19, 1916)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

July 21.—The Senate passes the Naval appropriation bill, the largest in the history of the country; only two Democrats and five Republicans vote against the measure.

July 27.—The Senate passes the Army appropriation bill (\$314,000,000), nearly doubling the authorizations of the House.

July 29.—The Senate, by vote of 46 to 19, adopts a resolution expressing the hope that the British Government may exercise clemency in the treatment of Irish prisoners.

August 8.—The Senate, after several days' debate, passes the Child Labor bill urged by President Wilson and already adopted by the House: the measure excludes from interstate commerce the products of children under fourteen, and under sixteen if the child works more than eight hours a day; ten Southern Democrats and the two Pennsylvania Republicans vote against the bill.

August 9.—The House adopts the conference report on the Army appropriation bill; the revised measure carries expenditures totaling \$267,595,000, against \$313,970,000 appropriated by the Senate and \$182,000,000 by the House.

August 10.—In the Senate, during a political debate, Mr. Penrose (Rep., Penn.) submits a list of fifty-nine contributors to the Democratic campaign fund of 1912 who have since been appointed to federal offices.

August 11.—The Senate Democrats, in caucus, complete their revision of the Revenue measure.

August 15.—The House accepts the Senate program for great increases in naval construction, by vote of 283 to 51.

August 16.—The Senate approves the conference report on the Philippines bill, extending greater measure of self-government to Filipinos but dropping the Clarke amendment promising independence within four years; the Republicans vote against the measure.

August 17.—In the Senate, the Democratic members of the Finance Committee, reporting the Revenue bill, recommend in addition a bond issue of \$130,000,000 to meet the extraordinary expenditures due to the Mexican situation.

August 18.—The Senate, by a party vote of 38 to 21, passes the Administration's Shipping bill "for the purpose of encouraging, developing, and creating a naval auxiliary and naval reserve and a merchant marine."

AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

July 21.—In the Prohibition National Convention, J. Frank Hanly, former Governor of Indiana, is nominated for President on the first ballot, with Dr. Ira Landrith, of Nashville, for Vice-President.

July 22.—Democratic primaries are held in Texas, the results being interpreted as a defeat for the Wilson Administration: Senator Culberson runs second to ex-Governor Colquitt in the Senatorial contest, and several Congressmen are defeated for renomination.

July 24.—At a special primary in Maine, Bert M. Fernald (Rep.) and Kenneth C. M. Sills (Dem.) are nominated to fill out the term of the late United States Senator Burleigh.

July 27.—The President nominates as members of the Farm Loan Board created under the Rural Credit Act: George W. Norris, of Pennsylvania; Charles E. Lobdell, of Kansas; W. S. A. Smith, of Iowa, and Herbert Quick, of West Virginia.

July 31.—Charles E. Hughes is formally notified at New York of his nomination for President of the United States, and in his acceptance speech he criticizes the Wilson Administration particularly for its handling of the Mexican and other foreign situations and its policy regarding appointments for high office.

August 1.—Mr. Hughes endorses the proposed Constitutional amendment extending the suffrage to women. . . . In the Missouri primary, Senator Reed is renominated and Walter S. Dickey is the Republican choice; for Governor, Frederick S. Gardner (Dem.) and Henry Lamm (Rep.) are nominated.

August 3.—Progressive leaders who oppose the endorsement of the Republican Presidential nominee meet at Indianapolis and decide not to call a convention to nominate a candidate in place of Colonel Roosevelt; it is decided, however, to place State tickets in the field wherever possible.

August 5.—Mr. Hughes, the Republican Presidential nominee, starts from New York on his first campaign tour, which will carry him to the Pacific Coast and back in five weeks.

August 8.—In the Ohio primary, Governor Willis (Rep.) and Senator Pomerene are renominated; James M. Cox (Dem.) is the successful Democratic candidate for Governor, and Myron T. Herrick is the Republican choice for Senator.

August 10.—The personnel of the Democratic Campaign Committee is announced, with an associate campaign committee of seven Progressives.

August 13.—Conferences between railroad men and managers having failed to adjust differences regarding the eight-hour day demand, and efforts of the Federal Board of Mediation being exhausted, President Wilson summons the leaders of both sides to a conference at the White House.

August 17.—President Wilson, having failed to persuade the railway managers to accept his proposals to avert a strike, summons the presidents of the railroads to the White House.

August 18.—The President vetoes the Army



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DAMAGE WROUGHT BY THE GREAT EXPLOSION AT
JERSEY CITY, ON JULY 30

(What was undoubtedly the greatest explosion in the world's history resulted from a small fire on a barge loaded with munitions at a pier in Jersey City. The shock was felt for a hundred miles. The photograph indicates what remained of thirteen brick storage warehouses, six piers, and eighty-five loaded freight cars)

appropriation bill, objecting to the provision which exempted retired officers from military trial and discipline.

AMERICAN RELATIONS WITH MEXICO

July 20.—The Mexican Government makes public a note dated July 11, suggesting to the United States the appointment of three commissioners from each Government to confer regarding the withdrawal of American troops and the origin of bandit raids, with a desire to effect an arrangement satisfactory to both Governments.

July 21.—It is established to the satisfaction of American military commanders in Mexico that Villa did not die from his wounds, as had been reported.

July 28.—President Wilson accepts the Mexican proposal for a joint commission to discuss matters of difference between the two Governments, and proposes an enlargement of the powers of the commission.

August 3.—It is announced at Mexico City that the Mexican commissioners to negotiate with the United States are: Luis Cabrera (Minister of Finance), Ignacio Bonillas, and Alberto J. Pani.

August 12.—National Guard troops remaining in State mobilization camps, probably 25,000 in number, are ordered to the border; it is estimated that 98,000 members of the National Guard are at present along the Mexican border.

August 15.—In view of a possible railroad strike in the United States, it is decided to hold in abeyance the order sending additional militiamen to the border.

FOREIGN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

July 26.—Federico Henriquez Carvajal is proclaimed provisional president of Santo Domingo by the Congress.

August 1.—The Chinese Parliament convenes at Peking, and President Li Yuan-hung takes the oath of office.

August 14.—The Danish Folkething (the lower house of Parliament) votes in favor of selling the Danish West Indies to the United States if the people ratify the proposal.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

August 3.—The proposed loan of American bankers to China is abandoned owing to differences regarding terms and guarantees.

August 4.—A treaty between the United States and Denmark is signed at New York, providing for the purchase of the Danish West Indies for \$25,000,000.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

July 22.—A bomb exploding during a preparedness parade in San Francisco kills six persons.

July 25.—The Board of Estimate in New York City unanimously adopts a zone building-plan regulating construction so as to preserve residential sections and prevent the erection of skyscrapers. . . . An explosion of gas in a water-works tunnel being constructed under Lake Erie, at Cleveland, kills twenty-two workmen.

July 28.—Figures published by the Department of Commerce show that the foreign-trade of the United States for the year ending June 30 aggregated \$4,334,000,000 exports and \$2,198,000,000 imports—the largest totals and the most favorable trade balance in the country's history.

July 29.—A new transcontinental automobile record is established by Samuel B. Stevens, of Rome, N. Y., who arrives in San Francisco 5½ days after leaving New York City.

July 30.—A small fire on a munitions-laden barge at a Jersey City pier causes an explosion which destroys thirteen brick storage warehouses, six piers, and eighty-five loaded freight cars; the loss of life is small (the explosion occurring at 2 a. m.), but the property damage is estimated at \$20,000,000.

July 31.—Forest fires in northern Ontario result in the death of more than 300 persons.

August 2.—A cloudburst near Tazewell, Tenn., causes Blair's Creek to overflow, washing away homes for six miles and drowning 35 persons.

August 3.—The epidemic of infantile paralysis in New York City reaches a new record, with 217 cases in a single day; in seven weeks the total cases number 4500, the death rate being 20 per cent.; in New York State (outside of the metropolis) there have been 900 cases, in New Jersey 1400, and in Pennsylvania 290.

August 4.—A three-months' lockout of cloak, suit and skirt workers in New York City is ended by a compromise agreement affording many gains for the workers.

August 7.—A partial strike of street-railway employees is ended and a complete tie-up averted by a compromise agreement involving wage increases, affected by Mayor Mitchel and Mr. Oscar Straus, chairman of the Public Service Commission.

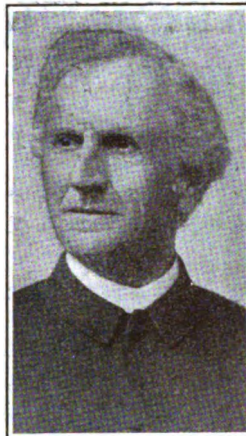


© Moffett Studio

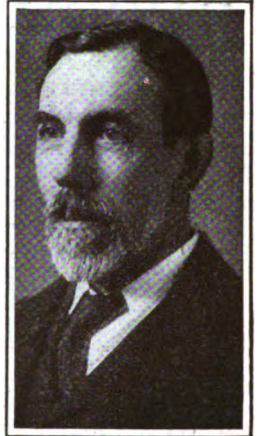
DR. JOHN B. MURPHY



JOHN M. THURSTON



REV. DR. DANIEL BLISS



SIR WILLIAM RAMSAY

(Dr. John B. Murphy, of Chicago, who died suddenly last month, was one of the country's most noted surgeons. Some of his famous operations were performed by the simplest means. John M. Thurston was United States Senator from Nebraska, 1895 to 1901, and long prominent in Republican national politics. He died last month in Omaha, where he was a leading member of the bar. The Rev. Dr. Daniel Bliss was founder and president-emeritus of the Syrian Protestant College at Beirut, Syria, and one of the most distinguished of American missionaries in the East. He died there on July 28, at the age of ninety-two, after more than sixty years of service. Sir William Ramsay, the eminent British chemist who died on July 23, was noted for many discoveries, chiefly of "inert" gases of the atmosphere. In 1904 he received the Nobel Prize for Chemistry.)

August 8.—The Government's crop report shows a serious falling off in the probable harvest of wheat, corn, and other crops. . . . Representatives of four railway brotherhoods meet with railway managers at New York, and show that 94 per cent. of the 400,000 engineers, firemen, conductors, and trainmen of the country have voted to strike, if necessary, for an eight-hour day.

August 9.—A cloudburst north of Charleston, W. Va., causes streams to overflow in Cabin Creek Valley, destroying many villages in the mining district with property damage amounting to \$2,000,000 and a loss of more than 50 lives.

OBITUARY

July 20.—Lieut. Gen. Ichonosuke Oka, recently Minister of War in Japan, 56.

July 22.—James Whitcomb Riley, the poet, 62 (see page 327).

July 22.—Charles W. H. Kirchhoff, for many years editor of the *Iron Age*, 64. . . . John Pitcairn, a prominent Pittsburgh manufacturer, 75.

July 23.—Sir William Ramsay, the noted British chemist, 62. . . . Thomas MacDonald Patterson, former United States Senator from Colorado and owner of Denver newspapers, 76. . . . Cyrus Cincinnati Cuneo, a well-known American artist and illustrator resident in England.

July 24.—William D. T. Travis, a prominent Civil War artist, 77. . . . Ernst G. J. Oertel, an influential German newspaper editor, 60.

July 26.—Brig. Gen. James G. C. Lee, U. S. A., retired, 80. . . . Frank H. Britton, president of the St. Louis Southwestern Railway, 66.

July 27.—Hugh Hastings, formerly State Historian of New York, 61.

July 28.—Rev. Daniel Bliss, D.D., for sixty years an American missionary in Syria, 92.

July 30.—Gen. Robert Burns Brown, former Commander-in-Chief of the Grand Army of the Republic and Republican nominee for Governor of Ohio in 1912, 72.

August 1.—Eben D. Jordan, the Boston dry-goods merchant, 59.

August 6.—Joseph Francis Daly, for many years a distinguished member of the New York State bench, 75.

August 7.—Gen. David McMurtrie Gregg, veteran of the Civil War, 83 (see page 274).

August 8.—Vice-Admiral Hikonojo Kamimura of the Japanese Navy, 67.

August 9.—John M. Thurston, former United States Senator from Nebraska, 69. . . . A. B. Stickney, founder of the Chicago Great Western Railroad, 76.

August 11.—David Kahn, head of the French international banking firm of Lazard Freres, 70. . . . Dr. John B. Murphy, the eminent Chicago surgeon, 58.

August 12.—Gen. Charles J. Paine, a veteran of the Civil War and formerly a prominent yachtsman, 83.

August 16.—Richard F. Hamilton, the widely known press agent, originator of the flamboyant style of circus literature, 70.

August 17.—William Pitt Clough, chairman of the board of directors of the Northern Pacific Railroad, 72. . . . Charles French, publisher of the *Musical Leader*, 55.

RECENT FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC CARTOONS



THE GIFTS OF THE GODS TO GERMANY

MARS (to CERES): "I and Poseidon have done our duty—now do yours!" (In other words, the military and naval arms of Germany have given a good account of themselves. Now Agriculture must do her share.)—From *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin).



GRAND EXHIBITION

By the celebrated conjuror and devil-exorcisor von Batocki (Germany's new "Food Dictator").
"Table, cover thyself—one, two, three; usurers disappear."—From *Nebelspalter* (Zurich).



THE BARK AND THE BISCUIT

Greece, in return for a consideration, has accepted all the terms laid down by the Allies and has stopped "barking."

From the *Cape Times* (Cape Town)



PEACE ALSO HATH HER BOMBS

(The bursting bomb is labeled "American-German Understanding," the idea being that the peaceful settlement of questions between Germany and the United States has greatly disconcerted the Allies.)

From *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin)



THE "PACIFIST"

From *La Baionnette* (Paris)



COMMUNICATION INTERRUPTED

WILLIAM (telephoning to Heaven): "He don't answer! I'm afraid He is gone over to the Allies."

From *L'Asino* (Rome)

FEW German publications come to America now, but we are able to include at least two examples from *Lustige Blätter* among our foreign cartoons this month.



THE REAPER—WILL HE NEVER STRIKE?

PEACE: "Other workers are striking everywhere; will you never lay down your tools?"

From *Punch* (Melbourne, Australia)



PAN-AMERICANISM

MEXICO: Put down your gun, intruder! Do you think I am afraid of your grimaces?

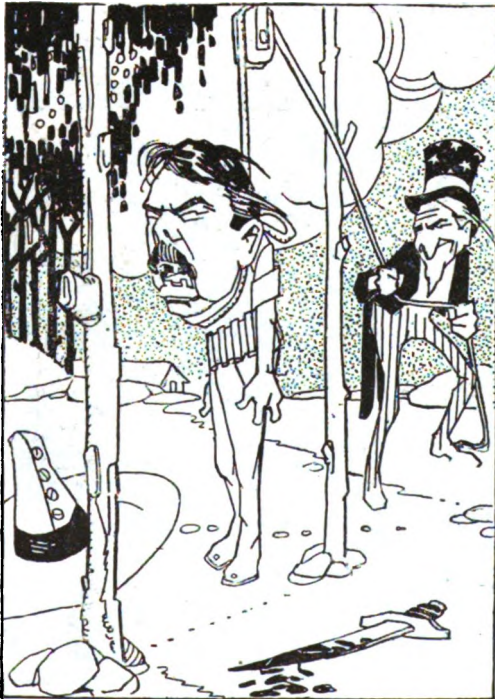
UNCLE SAM: Silence, miscreant! Don't attempt to play jokes with your boss.

THE A. B. C. REPUBLICS: And this is a picture of the much heralded Pan-Americanism! To think, that I should have to be the go-between in the cause of a poor nephew against such a rich and strong uncle!

From *O Malho* (Rio de Janeiro, Brazil)

The cartoons on this and the following page, on our relations with Mexico, are

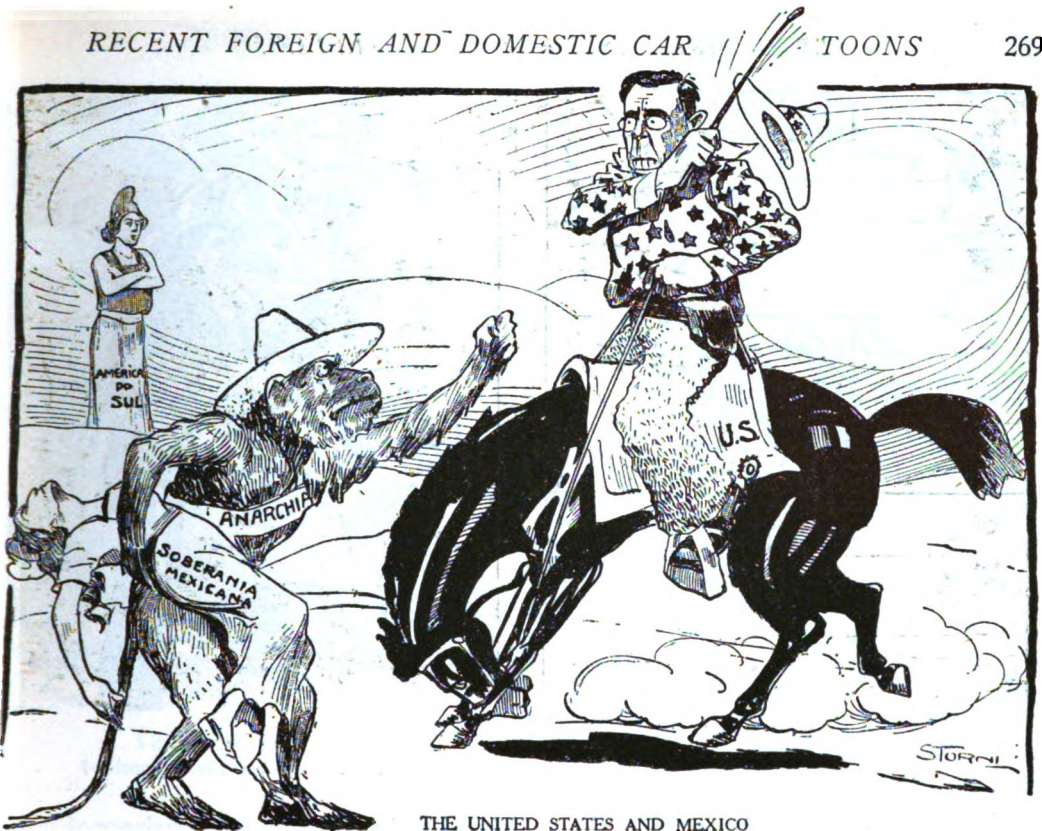
interesting as coming from South American countries—chiefly the "A. B. C." republics.



THE YANKEE-MEXICAN SITUATION

(What Uncle Sam intends to do to Pancho Villa—if he can—and what Pancho Villa intends to do to Uncle Sam)—From *Variedades* (Lima, Peru)





THE UNITED STATES AND MEXICO

SOUTH AMERICA (in the background): So that is the attitude of Uncle Sam! Wilson only wishes to punish Mexican anarchy, while respecting her sovereignty—a theme which has become more or less of a joke! Watch out! Watch out!

From *O Malho* (Rio de Janeiro, Brazil)



TO UNCLE SAM

"You would be the apostle of Peace, and wish to intoxicate us with this idea [literally: intoxicate the partridge, representing South America in the cartoon]. What a fine example you set us by assassinating a country!"

From *Sucesos* (Santiago, Chili)

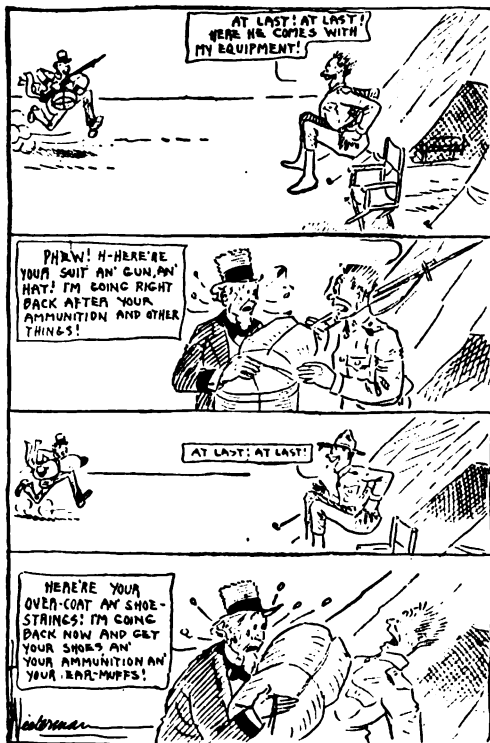


NEW OPERA BOUFFE

SECRETARY LANSING: Tell me, Mr. President, which of the notes that you have ordered for Mexico shall I send, one of these or one of the others?

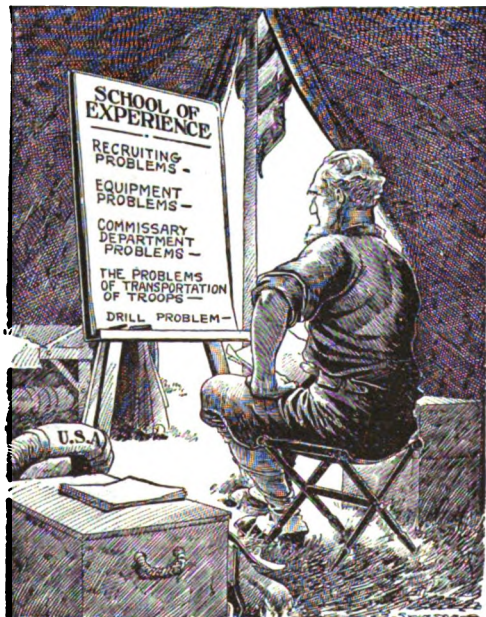
WILSON: Send the weightiest. The ones of paper will be seen and heard only a little at a time.

From *Caras y Caretas* (Buenos Aires, Argentina)



RAISING AN ARMY OF A MILLION MEN OVER NIGHT
From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus)

The Mexican question is still with us, and our brave militiamen are still on their job. Reports of how the "boys" are faring on the



A SUMMER SCHOOL WORTH ALL IT COSTS
From the *News* (Dayton, O.)



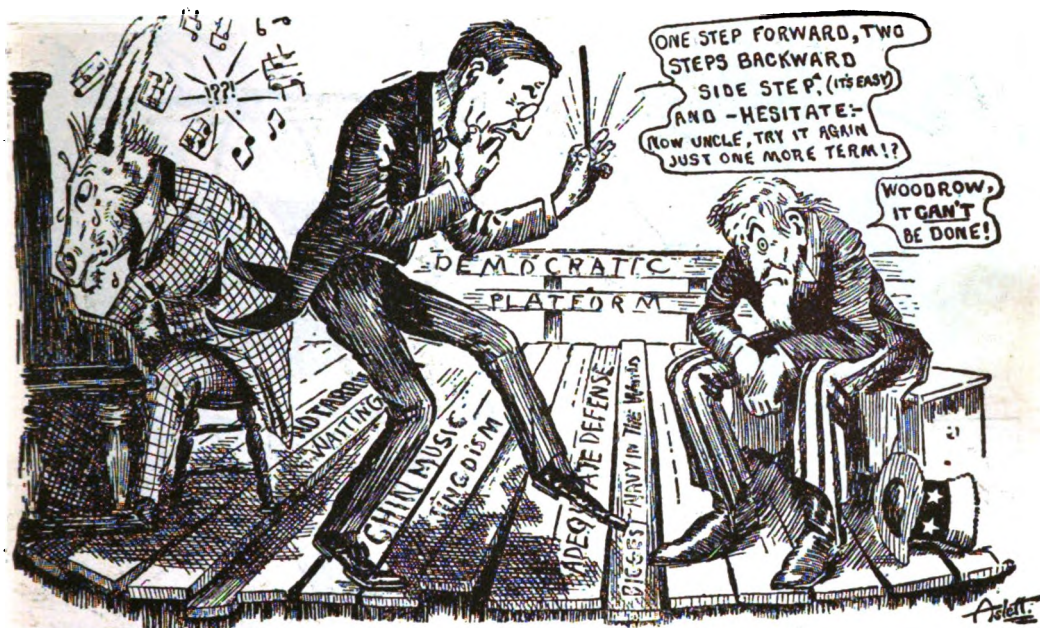
WILL IT BLAZE AGAIN?
From the *Chronicle* (San Francisco)

Mexican border show some variance of opinions. The spirit of the majority of them may, however, be seen behind the cartoon from the *First Illinois Cavalryman*, published by the soldiers at Brownsville, Texas.



© 1916 by C. Le Roy Baldridge

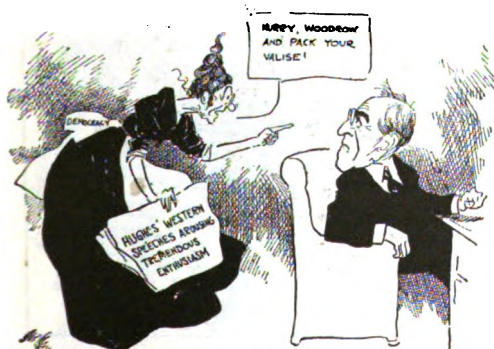
"ANYWHERE IN EUROPE"
From the *First Illinois Cavalryman* (Brownsville, Tex.)



THE WILSON WALTZ
From the *Post Express* (Rochester)



THE AWKWARD SQUAD
From the *News-Press* (St. Joseph)



"GO WEST, YOUNG MAN, GO WEST!"
From the *Leader* (Cleveland)



VERY WARM
From the *Daily News* (Dayton)



THE NEW FARM HAND I
From the Tribune (Sioux City)

The above cartoon deals with a subject of especial interest to the American farmer—the new "Rural Credits" law passed by Congress in July. Editorial comment on this act will be found in the front pages of this issue, and further detailed information regarding

it is contained in an article beginning on page 303. The railroad strike situation was still in an unsettled state last month as this magazine was going to press, with President Wilson using his utmost endeavors to bring both railroad heads and employees together in agreement to avert a general strike. Uncle Sam is considering the purchase of the Danish West Indies, to "close a gap" in his Caribbean defenses (see article on page 292), but the treaty remains to be ratified both by the United States Senate and the Danish Parliament.



© 1916 by International News Service
THE INNOCENT BYSTANDER
From the American (New York)
Sept.—3



TO CLOSE A GAP
From the Evening News (Newark)



© Review of Reviews Company

GENERAL GREGG (SECOND FROM LEFT) IN A GROUP OF CIVIL WAR CAVALRY LEADERS

From left to right: Gen. Wesley Merritt, Gen. David McM. Gregg, Gen. Philip H. Sheridan, Gen. Henry E. Davies, Gen. James H. Wilson, and Gen. Alfred T. A. Torbert. (From an original Brady photograph reproduced in the "Photographic History of the Civil War," published by the Review of Reviews Company)

GEN. DAVID McMURTRIE GREGG

GENERAL GREGG'S cavalry has been credited with saving the Union cause at Gettysburg, by defeating Stuart's attempt to break up the Federal rear while Pickett was charging in front. Yet Gregg was one of the most modest and unassuming of our Civil War heroes. Not so well known, perhaps, as other generals, he ranked with the bravest of that brilliant galaxy of cavalry leaders produced in our great struggle.

General Gregg, who died on August 7 last, graduated from West Point in 1855, and served his apprenticeship in that hardy "School of the Plains" that developed many of our best soldiers.

When the war broke out in 1861, Gregg was made a captain of cavalry. The following year he became successively a colonel and a brigadier-general of volunteers. He was

only thirty years of age when he routed Stuart and saved the day at Gettysburg. The rank of major-general of volunteers was conferred on him by brevet in 1864.

After the war, General Gregg retired to a life of comparative seclusion, broken only by a brief consulship at Prague and three years' service as Auditor-General of Pennsylvania. Further political honors might also have been his, for later he declined the nomination for Governor of the State. A volume on "The Second Cavalry Division of the Army of the Potomac" came from his pen in 1907.

The last years of General Gregg's life were spent in quiet retirement at his home in the city of Reading, Penn. He attained the age of eighty-three, thus rounding out more than a full half-century after Appomattox.



GENERAL GREGG AS HE LOOKED IN RECENT YEARS

THE GOVERNMENT AND GOOD ROADS

BY HON. DAVID F. HOUSTON
(Secretary of Agriculture)

***D**URING the coming year there will be throughout the country increasing interest in the application of the new federal law providing grants of money for country roads in the forty-eight States. So many bills have been introduced and discussed at Washington that the average reader is not quite clear as to the provisions of the measure that has now been placed on the statute books by Congress and the President. Appreciating the great interest that the present Secretary of Agriculture has shown in the progress of the movement for good country roads as bearing vitally upon all the problems of rural life, we have requested him to make an authoritative statement as to the way in which the law would work in its relation to the respective States. In the midst of many public duties of exceptional importance, the Secretary has acceded to our request and prepared the following admirable statement dealing with the highway situation as affected by this new federal law.—THE EDITOR.*

FOR many years there has been a definite and growing interest in good roads. In early times road improvement, such as was undertaken, was directed almost exclusively by local agencies. To thoughtful men, it was apparent that, if satisfactory results were to be secured, central control at least by the States should be established. Washington, writing to Patrick Henry, referred to the slight progress that was being made under the direction of the local jurisdictions and suggested the necessity of developing a central State body which should have as its function the promotion of a movement for better roads and for more effective administrative supervision of construction and maintenance.

Comparatively little headway was made for many years and not until about the beginning of this century did State action begin to assume definite proportions or to develop the requisite control. About twelve years ago the total annual expenditure of the States for road building amounted to only \$2,000,000, but by 1912 the amount had increased to \$43,000,000, and it is estimated that at present the nation is expending the equivalent of at least \$225,000,000 for road improvement. Along with the increased provision for road building there has come a great improvement in machinery for planning roads and for expending the funds. There has been a definite movement for the

creation of State highway commissions. Three or four years ago only twenty-nine of the States had any adequate highway machinery while to-day thirty-nine have fairly satisfactory commissions. The result has been better planning, great improvement in administrative methods, and a fuller return to the people for the money provided by them.

THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT'S INTEREST

The interest in road development was manifested a number of years ago by the Federal Government in the provision for a Federal Office of Roads in the Department of Agriculture. For a time this office had inadequate support. Its activities were limited largely to testing and research work, to the issuance of publications of an educational character, and to the giving of expert advice. More recently it has extended its activities in a number of directions and especially in making demonstrations of the best methods of road building in different sections of the country.

The progress made by this office is revealed in the fact that the appropriations for the support of its ordinary activities have increased from \$279,400 for the fiscal year 1914 to \$599,200 for the fiscal year 1917. In 1912, the Congress placed an additional burden upon it. It made an appropriation of half a million dollars to be expended by

the Secretary of Agriculture in coöperation with the Postmaster-General in improving the condition of roads to be selected by them on which rural delivery was established or might be established and provided that such improvements should be made under the supervision of the Secretary of Agriculture. This appropriation was made contingent on the contribution by the State or its civil subdivisions of double the amount provided by the Federal Government. There was thus placed under the immediate supervision of the Office of Public Roads the expenditure of a million and a half dollars in addition to its regular appropriation. The handling of the special fund furnished data of much value and the results have been responsible in no inconsiderable measure for the larger provision recently made in the passage of the Federal Aid Road Act, approved July 11, 1916.

ENORMOUS COST OF BAD ROADS

There is no need of discussing the importance of good roads. They are essential to comfortable travel, to the economic production and distribution of farm products, to the development especially of satisfactory rural schools, and to the improvement of the social life of the nation. Bad roads are very expensive possessions. It is estimated that it costs 23 cents under existing conditions to haul a ton a mile on the average country road and only 13 cents on a properly improved road, but this is not all the story. The direct cost is very great and the indirect costs are possibly even greater. With bad roads the farmer is compelled to haul when he should be engaged in other activities, while with good roads he can plan his operations without reference to the weather. The States and the local units, as has been intimated, have strikingly recognized these truths by greatly increasing their appropriations and by devising better machinery.

FEDERAL COÖPERATION

The question whether or not the Federal Government should participate in any large way directly in the construction of roads has long been before the American people. Hundreds of bills of almost every conceivable character have been introduced in Congress and debated. The central government has a very special and peculiar interest in good roads. It has under its control the transportation of mails and, with the growth of the rural delivery, the difficulties confronting it in securing economic handling of mails

have greatly increased and have been fully recognized. The impression became general that the Federal Government should participate in the construction of roads, limiting its attention to those over which Federal mails are or may be carried. The Constitutional warrant for such action rests on the authority of Congress to establish post offices and post roads. Furthermore, it was conceived to be reasonable that the people of the nation should have the benefit of the knowledge of both their State and Federal experts, and that the machinery of the two jurisdictions should be placed in a coöperative relation to render effective service to the people. The discussion turned largely on the specific proposals for legislation and on the matter of guaranteeing that money contributed for road-building should be wisely expended, and that a dollar's worth of work should be secured from each dollar appropriated.

In 1913, as Secretary of Agriculture I reviewed the good-roads movement and indicated some of the provisions which, in my judgment, should be incorporated if legislation was to be enacted. In 1914, I returned to this subject in my annual report and said:

The problem, so far as the Federal Government is concerned, is how to inject its assistance into the situation primarily so as to secure efficient expenditure. The people of the Nation are intensely interested in this problem, and pressure will continue for action by the Federal Government. The matter is of sufficient importance to justify again an attempt to indicate the wise course of action in case the Federal Government is further to expand its activities and lend direct support. If direct Federal aid is to be expended, it should be done only under such conditions as will guarantee a dollar's results for every dollar of expenditure. . . . Legislation should provide for coöperation between the Federal Government and the States, and the State through an expert highway commission should be the lowest unit with which the Federal machinery should deal. If the Federal Government recognizes any other unit than the State highway commission, it will complicate the situation in those States where satisfactory developments have taken place and it will retard movements in the right direction in other communities. If, on the other hand, the law recognizes only a central highway commission it will strengthen the hands of those that now exist and secure the creation of such bodies in the twenty-six States that do not now have them. The mere creation of such bodies in every State would be a marked gain. The Federal department and the highway commission of each State should be empowered jointly to select the roads upon which the work is to be performed and to determine the manner and methods of constructing roads under projects mutually agreed upon previously.

It seems desirable that if Federal money is to

be expended, it should be limited to construction projects and should not be used for maintenance, and, furthermore, because of the time required for the development of the requisite machinery and because of the difficulty of assumption by either jurisdiction of a large initial burden, the Federal appropriation should at first be relatively small.

Expenditure for maintenance would involve the Government in a very unsafe and uncertain course. It would be a continuing appropriation on a vast scale. It would seem only proper that if roads are secured, the States and the communities should maintain them. I clearly recognize that it is difficult to draw the line between construction and maintenance on the simpler forms of road; but, after all, the line can be drawn and would be much clearer if proper methods of construction were pursued.

As an automatic check to a drain on the Federal Treasury in case Federal aid is extended, provision should be made that each State shall make available for construction at least as much as is set aside by the Federal Government, preferably twice as much, and that it shall give a satisfactory guaranty to maintain the roads constructed. On all projects on which Federal money may be expended in coöperation with the States it should be provided that the two authorities shall fully coöperate, and that before Federal money is made available for any projects such projects shall have been mutually agreed upon by the Federal department and the State authorities, with clear understandings as to methods of construction, specifications, materials, and the development of a road system.

It will be objected by some that this suggestion involves an invasion of State rights. As a matter of fact, it simply looks to the use of Federal money for the purpose for which it may be voted, and to its efficient expenditure. Those who fear invasion of State rights can easily obviate the danger by declining to ask for Federal money. If they demand Federal money, they can not easily decline to have its proper and efficient expenditure safeguarded. It is no argument to assert that State agencies may be trusted. As a matter of fact, they are not the officials who have to assume the responsibility for the expenditure of Federal money. We do trust State authorities fully to vote and expend State funds. They assert the right to look after the expenditure of State funds and do so with great jealousy. They should show a willingness to have the Federal officers assist in the supervision of the expenditure of Federal moneys.

One thought should be clearly held in mind, namely, that it is highly unwise to discourage State and local effort. Only in recent years have the States begun seriously to attack many of the problems which it was originally contemplated they should solve. If the Federal Government were to make a very large appropriation, it is not improbable that the States would begin to look to it somewhat exclusively for funds with which to build roads. Such a development would be calamitous.

FEATURES OF THE NEW LAW

After considering many proposals and after long debate the Federal Aid Road Act was passed by the Congress and approved by the President. It had practically the

unanimous endorsement of the highway commissioners of the several States. It is based on sound principles. Its leading features are as follows:

1. It authorizes the Secretary of Agriculture to coöperate with the States through their respective State highway departments in the construction of rural post roads. This principle is important and significant. Heretofore the agencies of the State and the Federal governments have too often usually proceeded entirely independently and not infrequently worked at cross purposes and sometime in an antagonistic spirit. The principle of coöperation between the two governments is extending and promises much for the people whom they serve.

2. No money appropriated by the act can be expended in any State until the legislature of the State shall have assented to the provisions of the act. It is provided that until the final adjournment of the first regular session of the legislature the assent of the Governor may be sufficient, but since practically in every case appropriations will be needed and in some cases a State highway department will have to be created, the assent of the Governor will not make possible actual operations.

The assent of the State will imply its acceptance of all the terms of the Act and such action as may be necessary to enable it to coöperate effectively with the Federal Department.

3. Federal money may be expended only for the construction of post roads. The term "construction" is interpreted to include reconstruction and improvement, the latter excluding merely the making of needed repairs and the preservation of a reasonably smooth surface. To maintain the roads constructed under the provisions of the Act is made the duty of the States or of their civil subdivisions according to the laws of the several States, and it is provided that, if the Secretary of Agriculture shall find any road in any State so constructed is not being properly maintained within a given period, he shall give notice of this fact to the highway department and, if within four months from the receipt of the notice the road has not been put in the proper condition of maintenance, no further aid can be extended to such State or civil subdivision.

Perhaps the weakest point in good roads legislation and practise has been the lack of adequate provision for maintenance. It will be essential under the terms of this Act that, in considering proposed road projects,

careful regard shall be given to the provisions to be made by the States or their civil subdivisions for the maintenance of roads in the discharge of this duty. The construction work in each State must be done in accordance with the laws of the State and under the direct supervision of the State highway department, but the Secretary of Agriculture is given power to inspect the work as it proceeds, to approve it, and to make the necessary rules and regulations for the enforcement of the act. It is stipulated that the projects shall be substantial in character and that expenditures of Federal funds shall be applied only to such projects.

4. There are appropriated out of the Federal Treasury for carrying out the general purposes of the act the following sums of money: For 1917, \$5,000,000; 1918, \$10,000,000; 1919, \$15,000,000; 1920, \$20,000,000; 1921, \$25,000,000. Unexpended balances for any State for any fiscal year shall be available until the close of the succeeding fiscal year and amounts apportioned for any fiscal year to any State which has not a State highway department shall be available for expenditure until the close of the third fiscal year succeeding that for which the apportionment was made. The latter part of this provision was inserted to permit States not having highway machinery to develop it.

A few States in the Union have constitutional provisions prohibiting the State from engaging in any work of internal improvement. The State, of course, may remove this disability. If it does not do so, then, if any number of counties in such State shall appropriate the proportion needed in order to entitle such State to its part of the appropriation apportioned to it under this act and all the other provisions of the act are complied with, the work may proceed. The wording of the act makes it clear that whether action is by the States or by counties, it must be adequate to meet the Federal apportionment to the State.

In accepting the terms of the act the State, as a matter of course, pledges its faith to the five-year program. This is important because it makes possible the arrangement of a comprehensive scheme of road building. Obviously the expenditure of the entire amount of money contemplated under the act should be planned at the outset as far as possible and road systems and projects conceived accordingly. This does not bind the State legislature to make an appropriation at the first session for the five-year

period. This would be prevented by the Constitution of many States; but it does involve a pledge of the State's faith to continue the appropriations according to the terms of the act; and even where the counties contribute the necessary funds, the assent of the State must be had and the other terms of the act such as the existence of a highway commission and the acceptance of the duty of maintaining roads must be complied with.

5. The contribution of the Federal Government for the construction of any road is limited to 50 per cent. of the estimated cost of it and cannot exceed 50 per cent. of the actual cost. The aggregate expenditure out of Federal funds for the construction over the country generally is \$75,000,000. At least as much more must be expended by the States for construction alone. The act, therefore, contemplates an aggregate expenditure for general road construction work over the country of \$150,000,000.

APPORTIONMENT OF FUNDS

6. The Secretary of Agriculture, after making a deduction not exceeding 3 per cent. of the appropriation for any fiscal year for administrative purposes, is authorized to apportion the remainder for each year among the several States on the basis of three factors—population, area, and mileage of rural delivery and star routes—each factor having a weight of one-third. The apportionment, as worked out for the fiscal year 1917, is as follows:

Alabama	\$104,148.90
Arizona	68,513.52
Arkansas	82,689.10
California	151,063.92
Colorado	83,690.14
Connecticut	31,090.44
Delaware	8,184.37
Florida	55,976.27
Georgia	134,329.48
Idaho	60,463.50
Illinois	220,926.23
Indiana	135,747.62
Iowa	146,175.60
Kansas	143,207.40
Kentucky	97,471.91
Louisiana	67,474.66
Maine	48,451.50
Maryland	44,047.22
Massachusetts	73,850.95
Michigan	145,783.72
Minnesota	142,394.06
Mississippi	88,905.84
Missouri	169,720.41
Montana	98,287.19
Nebraska	106,770.81
Nevada	64,398.30
New Hampshire	20,996.62
New Jersey.....	59,212.68
New Mexico.....	78,737.81

New York.....	\$250,720.27
North Carolina	114,381.92
North Dakota	76,143.06
Ohio	186,905.42
Oklahoma	115,139.00
Oregon	78,687.37
Pennsylvania	230,644.17
Rhode Island	11,665.71
South Carolina	71,807.64
South Dakota	80,946.02
Tennessee	114,153.48
Texas	291,927.81
Utah	56,950.15
Vermont	22,844.47
Virginia	99,660.71
Washington	71,884.28
West Virginia	53,270.46
Wisconsin	128,361.07
Wyoming	61,196.82

Total \$4,850,000.00

The basis of apportionment may slightly change, but, roughly speaking, the amount which each State will receive from the Federal Government after the first year may be ascertained by multiplying these sums by 2, 3, 4, or 5, and the aggregate amount for each State received from the Federal Treasury will be approximately as follows, to be met by equal contributions from the States:

Alabama	\$1,562,233.50
Arizona	1,027,702.80
Arkansas	1,240,336.50
California	2,265,958.80
Colorado	1,255,352.10
Connecticut	466,356.60
Delaware	122,765.55
Florida	839,644.05
Georgia	2,014,942.20
Idaho	906,952.50
Illinois	3,313,893.45
Indiana	2,036,214.30
Iowa	2,192,634.00
Kansas	2,148,111.00
Kentucky	1,462,078.65
Louisiana	1,012,119.90
Maine	726,772.50
Maryland	660,708.30
Massachusetts	1,107,764.25
Michigan	2,186,755.80
Minnesota	2,135,910.90
Mississippi	1,333,587.60
Missouri	2,545,806.15
Montana	1,474,307.85
Nebraska	1,601,562.15
Nevada	965,974.50
New Hampshire	314,949.30
New Jersey	888,190.20
New Mexico	1,181,067.15
New York	3,760,804.05
North Carolina	1,715,728.80
North Dakota	1,142,145.90
Ohio	2,803,581.30
Oklahoma	1,727,085.00
Oregon	1,180,310.55
Pennsylvania	3,459,662.55
Rhode Island	174,985.65
South Carolina	1,077,114.60

South Dakota.....	\$1,214,190.30
Tennessee	1,712,302.20
Texas	4,378,917.15
Utah	854,252.25
Vermont	342,667.05
Virginia	1,494,910.65
Washington	1,078,264.20
West Virginia	799,056.90
Wisconsin	1,925,416.05
Wyoming	917,952.30

Total \$72,750,000.00

STATES MUST TAKE THE INITIATIVE

7. The State is the lowest unit with which the Federal Government may coöperate and only through a State highway department. This is made especially clear by the requirement that the Secretary of Agriculture and the State highway department of each State shall agree upon the roads to be constructed therein and the character and method of construction, and that any State desiring to avail itself of the benefits of the act shall by its State highway department submit to the Secretary of Agriculture project statements setting forth proposed road construction. If the Secretary approve such project the highway department shall furnish to him such surveys, plans, specifications, and estimates therefor as he may require.

It will be especially noted that there must be an agreement between the Secretary of Agriculture and the State highway department of each State on the roads to be constructed, that projects, plans, specifications, and estimates shall be submitted by the State highway departments and approved by the Secretary of Agriculture before any Federal money can be expended.

The initiative under the act lies with the States, and the Federal Government cannot begin operations until after the acceptance of the act by the State, a State highway department has been created, if none exists, and road projects and the requisite engineering data have been submitted to the Secretary of Agriculture and approved. It should be clear, therefore, to communities interested in road projects which might be considered under this act that they should place themselves in touch directly with their central State highway agency.

NATIONAL FORESTS AND GOOD ROADS

8. Special provision is made to meet a situation arising especially in the western States of the nation because of the presence in those States of the Federal Government as a great land holder. In all the great Rocky Mountain and Pacific Coast States the

Federal Government controls millions of acres of forest lands. There are many communities having a sparse population in which the Federal Government is the largest land holder. These communities are struggling to develop themselves and to secure outlets to adjoining communities and to markets. In many cases they have had to rely mainly on taxes on private holdings for means to finance their enterprises.

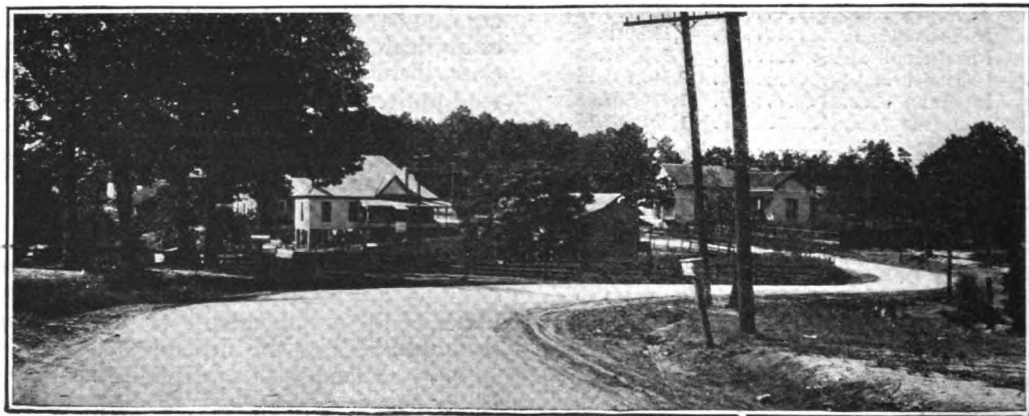
Heretofore, the Federal Government has definitely recognized that the forests should contribute to the local development, as well as the national welfare, especially, by providing for the use of .35 per cent. of all gross receipts from the forests for local public purposes; but in some sections there are little or no revenues from the forests and it was clear that the community should not wait until the period of hardest struggle was past before any assistance was given them. The first need of many of the sections in undeveloped regions is for more and better roads. Without them their struggle to get a foothold is much more difficult. They remain isolated from neighbors and from the outside world with meager educational opportunities and conditions unfavorable to community life and to progress. To meet the situation, the Federal Aid Road Act provides that out of any Federal money not otherwise appropriated the sum of \$1,000,000 a year for ten years may be expended under the supervision of the Secretary of Agriculture upon request from the proper officers for the construction and maintenance of roads and trails within or only partly within the National Forests.

It stipulates that officers of the proper jurisdiction shall enter into a cooperative agreement with the Secretary of Agriculture for the construction and maintenance of such roads or trails on an equitable basis when

necessary for the use and development of resources upon which the community is dependent. It provides further that the aggregate expenditures in any State, Territory, or county shall not exceed 10 per cent. of the value of the timber and forage resources within the area in which the roads or trails are to be constructed. It is contemplated that under this provision projects shall be carefully considered both on their relative and absolute merits and that on behalf of the Federal Government, under the direction of the Secretary of Agriculture, the work shall be undertaken by the Forest Service and the Federal Office of Public Roads in co-operation.

This Federal Aid Road Act was designed not only to promote road-building but also adequately to safeguard through efficient machinery the expenditure of all funds arising under it. There is good reason for believing that these purposes will be realized. It is highly probable that it will do much more than this. As has been pointed out, the nation is now annually spending the equivalent of \$225,000,000 for road-building. The improvements of administrative agencies and methods which will certainly follow the operation of this act should lead to greatly increased efficiency in the expenditure of these large additional sums. In such case, the nation will realize great benefit not only from the expenditure of the joint funds but also of the separate surplus money of the States and communities.

How soon actual operations can begin in any State will depend upon the action of the State and the adequacy of its arrangements to meet the terms of the act. The Federal Government will be in position to proceed as soon as the rules and regulations are formulated and projects are presented for its determination.



THE BATTLE OF EUROPE— ALLIED OFFENSIVES ON FOUR FRONTS

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS

I. ALLIED STRATEGY IS DISCLOSED

MORE interesting than any of the partial victories won by the Allies on all their fronts was the disclosure of their complete strategic conception in full operation in August, for the first time in the war. Coincident with this disclosure was the plain proof of the defeat of all German plans made since the end of the Balkan campaign last winter.

Looking backward for the moment it will be seen, at last, how just was the French view, set forth by me here, on my return from Verdun, as to the extent of the German defeat before the Lorraine fortress. Similarly futile was the Austrian offensive in the Trentino, which followed the lines and had a purpose identical with that of the Verdun attack.

The underlying purpose of the German attack upon Verdun was to inflict such losses, create such disorder and disorganization in the Allied headquarters, compel such premature counter-offensives on the part of the British and French, that there could be no combined Anglo-French attack in the West this summer. The Allied attack upon the Somme is final proof that German purpose failed. We see clearly, now, that the French, once the danger of an actual piercing of their line had been abolished, were prepared to sacrifice Verdun itself, if necessary, to keep their reserves intact and to permit the British to complete their preparations for attack. We see, now, that the fall of Verdun, discouraging as it might have proven, would have been of little importance if it had come in May or June.

You get here one of the best examples of the clash of two strategic conceptions that it is possible to have. German high command said: "We will attack Verdun; we may break through the French lines and achieve a success like our triumph at the Dunajec last year. But if we fail to do this we will grind up French reserves, provoke the British to

strike before they are ready, and having provoked this unprepared offensive, we will pass to the defensive and preserve our map of Europe intact for another year."

Then you have Joffre's answer: "Since there are political reasons to be considered we will hold on to Verdun as long as we can. We will straightway abolish the danger of a piercing. (The danger was abolished by early April.) Then we will let the Germans pound themselves to pieces at Verdun, while the British and ourselves continue to prepare our own attack in conjunction with the Russians, and at the appointed time we shall all strike together."

Now no one can question the strategic victory of Joffre. He won a tactical victory also. That is to say he not merely kept his larger purpose of an offensive by all his armies and allies unshaken, but he did actually hold Verdun. He might have lost Verdun, as Napoleon lost Genoa in his early Italian campaign, and yet have retrieved all as Napoleon retrieved all at Marengo, but he was able to hold Verdun until he was ready to strike elsewhere and this makes his success the more complete.

Similarly the Austrian purpose to deal a terrific and crippling blow at Italy, a blow that would prevent Italy from taking the offensive on the Isonzo front, which is the true operative front of the Italian campaign, miscarried, because before it had become effective the Russian blow compelled the Austrians to recall their troops from the Trentino and, having repaired the local damage the Austrians had wrought, the Italians were able in the month of August to step out along the Isonzo, take Gorizia, and win their first great victory of the war and indeed of their recent and tragic history.

Now it is wise to keep in mind the fact that the Allies, while winning a great victory in the encounter of two strategic conceptions in the past nine months, merely won the opportunity to put their larger purpose into

operation. They were able to preserve the power to take the initiative at the selected moment. What we are now seeing is the putting of this plan into force. The four great nations fighting the Central Powers have been able to thwart the effort of the Central Powers to forestall a combined and synchronized attack. They are making that attack and they have had many striking successes, but the decision has not been had and it is now wiser to examine what has been done and indicate what the Allies are trying to accomplish than to indulge in any forecast. We must remember that Germany, in her turn, may have an answer, must have an answer, if the real issue of the war is not to be decided in the next few months, however long the Allies may be in enforcing a decision once achieved.

II. STILL LOOKING BACKWARD

The issues and the operations have become so big and so complex that I desire again to ask my readers to look back a few months and see the development of the Allied campaign, which is now approaching a climax. You may safely reckon that Joffre and those who confer with him as the representatives of the other nations allied with France, but accept his supreme direction, estimated that France, Britain, Russia, and Italy would not be ready to move before June 1. Russia and Britain, for different reasons, would necessarily be late and the Austrian attack upon Italy also retarded the Italian readiness.

We may conjecture that the success of the Austrian attack upon Italy and the renewed progress of the Germans at Verdun may have led Joffre to decide to strike a little earlier than he had expected. Conceivably Russia was in better shape than had been expected. But at all events it was agreed by all the Allies that about the first of June Russia should strike the lines that Germany and Austria had thinned to accumulate the men and guns necessary to attack in Lorraine and the Tyrol.

Now the Russian blow was more successful than anyone could have foreseen. It resulted in accomplishing what the Germans had attempted and failed to accomplish at Verdun. The lines of the Central Powers were pierced. There was the beginning of a new Austrian débâcle and the whole Austro-German line from the Pripet Marshes to the Carpathians—or rather to the Rumanian boundary—was put in deadly peril, a peril

from which it has not been able to save itself as yet.

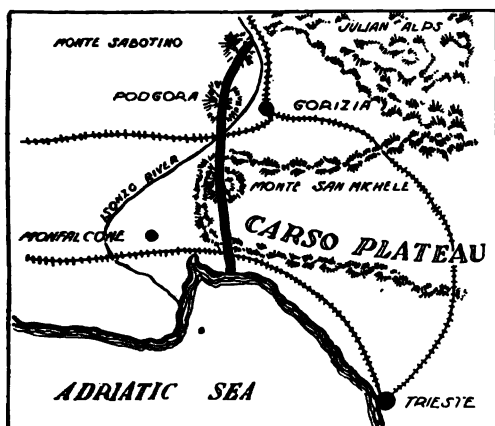
To meet this danger Austria drew her masses out of the Trentino and Germany drew some of her soldiers from the western front and many of her reserves, marked for western service, to the East. Her western line was not thus immediately thinned, but it was weakened for the future, when losses suffered would require fresh reserves and these reserves would be lacking, because they had been sent east.

This was in June. By July the eastern situation had temporarily improved from the German outlook, but on July 1 there had come the Anglo-French attack on the Somme. It was less successful than the Russian attack. It did not pierce the German lines and it has not even yet pierced them. But it did inflict heavy losses, it did raise a new menace and it did abolish the German belief, if it still existed, that the Verdun operation had prevented an Allied drive in the West for 1916. The first day of the Somme attack established the truth of all that the Allied and neutral commentators had said about the real significance of Verdun.

The Allied offensive on the Somme in July plainly distracted German attention and effort somewhat from the East. We perceived, and I noted it in my last article, an upward tendency in Russian effort as the month advanced. But on the whole Russia still seemed temporarily to have slowed down and it was impossible to say whether she would presently have to accept a state of deadlock again, on new lines and after great triumphs. This was the situation when I closed my review last month.

August, however, has brought another striking change. This time it is Italy which has stepped out and struck. Her blow fell against Austria and was swiftly and considerably successful. It may yet turn out to have decided the fate of Trieste, but it certainly opened a new line of danger for the Central Powers. It, too, made clear that the Austrian defensive-offensive in the Trentino, the effort to hit Italy a blow that, as the slang song has it, "Would hold her for a while," failed as the German blow at Verdun had failed.

Now, I am going to discuss these operations in detail in a moment, but the detail is not of equal importance. We are at the beginning of the greatest campaign of the war and I want my readers to see, not the detail, but the main fact. This main fact is the Allied plan to strike the Central



SCENE OF THE FIGHTING OF THE PAST MONTH ON
THE ITALIAN FRONT

Powers on all fronts at the same time, to exert equal pressure on all fronts until the weakest breaks. Today the plan is in full swing and when the Balkan blow falls, there will be this grinding pressure on four fronts. It will make least progress where the Central Powers are strongest, which is in the West, it will make most where they are weakest, which is where Austrian armies stand, but it will succeed or fail, not as it wins ground on one front, but as its total pressure may or may not induce a collapse of the Central Powers—and this will take months to determine.

All through this war we have heard most about the western front. And this has been true, whether decisive actions like the Marne and Verdun were going on, or minor affairs like the countless little local attacks and counter-attacks from the Vosges to the sea. This is bound to continue, but there is every indication now that the decision in the war will come not in the West but in the East.

Bear in mind that in the Civil War our fathers, North and South, had their attention fixed upon Richmond and Washington and counted the Virginia campaigns the decisive operations. They were not. While Lee held Grant for many months, with little change of front, and prevented him from obtaining any considerable advantage, the whole Confederacy crumbled to nothing under the blows of Thomas and Sherman. The western field in Europe may again become the most important, but it is not at the moment, and Russian, Italian, and, above all, Balkan operations deserve far closer attention.

If you think first of the Battle of the Somme, you will necessarily get a distorted view of the war. The long trench war be-

fore Petersburg similarly misled Americans in 1864. But if you think of the Battle of Europe, as historians now think of the whole field of the Civil War operations of 1864, if you think of the Russians as playing something of the rôle of Sherman, of the Italians fulfilling a part of Thomas's mission, if you recall how Sherman and Thomas broke the back of the South while Lee and Grant stood firm—you will see the picture as it is in its making and be able to judge accurately the real state of the war.

III. ITALY STRIKES

The Italian blow, the taking of the city of Gorizia, and the forcing of the whole line of the Isonzo was the most dramatic event of the month of August to date. It was, on the whole, unexpected in its extent and completeness and it disclosed an Austrian weakness which deserves careful consideration. We know that the great Russian success of June was due to the fact that German and Austrian high command had weakened their eastern lines, because they were convinced that Russia was unable to become dangerous. We may conclude that a similar line of reasoning had led to the weakening of the Isonzo front, which brought equally disastrous consequences.

One is, then, bound to conclude, first, that the Central Powers lack the necessary numbers to hold all their present lines with sufficient strength, and, secondly, that German high command is beginning to make grave mistakes in estimating the actual condition of its opponents. It overestimated its victory against Russia last summer; it believed too strongly that Russia had been put out for a long time. It overestimated the effect of the Austrian blow against Italy in the Trentino. It overestimated the effect of the blow it had dealt France at Verdun.

The first thrust of the Russians brought the Austrian attack upon Italy in the Trentino to a stop. This blow can be simply explained. The Treaty of 1866 left Austria in possession of the back door into Italy, which is the door at the mouth of the Adige Valley, a threefold door, because in the lower Adige Valley three routes open into Italy, into the Venetian Plain, the route south by the shores of Lago di Garda, the main route down the Adige Valley to Verona, and the Brenta Valley, which opens out just north of Vicenza.

The front door, of course, is the Isonzo front, and it is the only door into Austria from Italy. It is this way Italy must advance if she is to take Trieste and her "Irredenta." Her way is barred by the Julian Alps at the north and by the Adriatic at the south, which are the hinges of the Gorizia door; the door swings on them, but is supported by various strong positions on either side of the Isonzo. It is thirty miles from the mountains to the sea and the city of Gorizia stands half way between and gives its name to the whole operation of the Italians.

When the war broke out, Italy's ultimate purpose was to emerge through the front door, break the Gorizia gate, and pour into Austria. But she had first to block the back door to her own country, because her lines of communication to the Gorizia front passed almost within sight of Austrian positions at the mouths of the Adige and Brenta Valleys. If the Austrians coming south and in by these back entrances could get to Vicenza or Verona, they would be in the rear and across the only lines of communications of the Italians to the Isonzo.

Thus we had the first rush of the Italians up the Adige toward Trent, up the Brenta to Borgo, and up the shores of Lago di Garda to the environs of Riva, at the head of the lake. Presently the Italians came up against the permanent fortifications of Trent and were checked. They then set to work to build lines of their own, to make good the ground they had won, and bar the back door to their own house. At the same time they began to press their attack upon the Gorizia gate, which led to desperate fighting and bloody Italian repulses last September.

Unhappily for the Italians they did not quite complete their work at the back door. They did not erect strong enough lines to hold the Austrians and, last May, when the Austrians came down the Adige and the Brenta, furnished with a vast train of heavy artillery, the Italian lines, one after another, yielded until between the Adige and the Brenta the Austrians crossed the old Italian frontier and began to approach the Venetian Plain, to come near to Vicenza. If they could get it, then the Isonzo army would have to come back; it might even be enveloped and captured. At the least all of Italy north of the Po and east of the Adige would be lost, and behind these rivers Austria could stand on the defensive, just as Germany had stood on the defensive

across northern France for nearly two years.

When the Russians struck in June, Italy was in deadly peril. The Russian blow saved her. But as the Austrian reserves retired, it was necessary for Italy to take up again the work of closing the back door, and all through June and July she was pushing the Austrians back out of the vantage ground gained, and seeking to create a stronger barrier to this Adige gateway. She seems to have finished her task in the closing days of June.

IV. GORIZIA AND THE ISONZO

When Italy again took the offensive on the Isonzo the situation was this: One flank of the Austrian army, resting on the Julian Alps, stood west of the Isonzo and on a considerable mountain spur, Monte Sabotino. The other flank was behind the Isonzo, resting on the sea and occupying the first high ridge of the Carso Plateau, which follows the coast from Trieste north. This first high ridge is known as the Doberdo Plateau and its chief crest is Monte San Michele. The center of the Austrians stood across the Isonzo on the famous hill of Podgora, which is exactly west of Gorizia.

Holding Podgora the Austrians held the crossings of the Isonzo just as the French, holding the Hills of the Meuse, east of Verdun, hold the crossings of the Meuse. And in military parlance, this constitutes a bridgehead. Gorizia, like Verdun, was a bridgehead and the official reports speak always of the "bridgehead of Gorizia."

Some time in the first days of August the Italians suddenly broke into fire and flame all the thirty miles from the Alps to the sea, but they presently centered their fire on the two flanks, upon the positions of Sabotino and San Michele. Having pounded them to pieces for days, they then put their infantry in and took both positions by storm. This settled the fate of Podgora, that is, of the Austrian center, and the Austrians evacuating this fell back through Gorizia and up the Valley of Wippach, behind the town, taking position on the hills to the east, from the Alps, east of the Isonzo, to the Carso Plateau back of San Michele. They had lost about 15,000 prisoners and had suffered very great losses in killed and wounded as well. By August 7 this phase was over and the question was raised: What will be the fate of Trieste?

When the Italians, moving east from



Photograph by Press Illustrating Service

HUNGARIAN GUNNERS ON AN ALPINE PEAK, IN THE FIGHTING AGAINST THE ITALIANS



ON THE ITALIAN FRONT

(These Italian cavalymen, serving as infantry, are located in trenches built of rock fragments—an interesting contrast to the mud and chalk composition of the terrain on other war fronts)

Monfalcone up the Doberdo Plateau, had taken San Michele, they were some twenty miles from Trieste, which lay almost due south from them. The main railroad and road lines followed the sea, at the foot of the Carso Plateau. When the Italian center took Gorizia, it was some thirty-odd miles from Trieste by rail and road, which go up the Wippach Valley and then turn first south and then east, cross the Carso Plateau, and fall steeply down into Trieste. As the Italians were able to advance by this line they would interpose between Trieste and the rest of Austria. A successful advance south of perhaps thirty miles, parallel to the coast but twenty miles inland, would enable them to cut the Trieste-Vienna railroad and Trieste would be cut off and compelled to undergo a siege.

The problem for the Italians was to prevent the defeated Austrians from standing in some new trench line behind Gorizia and still with their flanks resting on the sea and the Alps. The problem of the Austrians was to restore their front and stand again, a few miles behind their lost position of Gorizia.

Writing on August 15, it is impossible for me to estimate the situation with respect to Trieste. It is not clear, yet, that the Austrians have been able to take up new positions. But it looks that way. If they have, Gorizia will turn out a considerable but local success, and the Italians will have to begin all over again to batter a breach in the Austrian lines covering the passage from Italy into Austria. They will not be able to isolate and besiege Trieste and they will not be materially nearer to their real goal.

But if the Austrians are compelled to continue their retreat for but a few miles, they will be unable to prevent an invasion of Austria, because the sea rapidly falls away from the mountains, a little east of Isonzo, and the Italians, possessing vastly superior numbers, will be able to use them on an ever-widening front, while the Austrians will no longer be able to hold up the superior Italian numbers, thanks to the narrowness of the front, between the sea and the mountains.

And this is the real question. We see that the Austrians have been unable, so far, to find the troops to hold their eastern and Isonzo fronts. They will have more difficulty if they are forced to defend a wider front and each Italian advance will widen the front. Italy has no such difficulty because she has no eastern front to defend and her armies have suffered no such colossal losses in casualties and prisoners as the Austrians.

Beside this, Trieste is a side issue. The Isonzo position was a greatly magnified Thermopylæ, it enabled a relatively small number to hold up a host. If the Italians have succeeded not merely in forcing the Isonzo line, but in driving the Austrians beyond all the positions that they could hold between the mountains and the sea, then it will require large new Austrian forces to defend the Italian front, and Austria will be put to a new and terrible strain. But all this will not be clear for many days and perhaps weeks to come.

V. RUSSIA QUICKENS HER PACE

Turning now to the Russian field, I desire to repeat what I have already said, that up to the present moment this is the interesting field. It is here that we have so far seen all the signs that might give promise of the approaching defeat of the Central Powers. This is not to say that the action of the French and British in the West, if it succeeds in holding so many troops that Germany cannot find the men to stop Russia, will not play an equally useful rôle. Perhaps for a long time this is the only rôle the British and French will be able to play. But it is Russia that is just now making the striking and impressive campaign, and under her blows Austria is patently weakening.

When I closed my last review the Russians were fighting furiously along the Styra and west of the Styra close to the Stokhod, in what seemed to be a determined effort to get Kovel and cut the important railroad lines centering there. This was the army of General Kaledine, who was himself subordinate to General Brusiloff, the supreme commander in the southeast. It was not then clear whether the Russians were bending their main energies for Kovel or not.

Further to the south, from the face of Lutsk to the Dniester, Brusiloff was attacking the Austrians and the Germans, along the headwaters of the Styra, east of Brody, west of Tarnopol, and so on down to the junction of the Strypa and the Dniester.

Still further to the south, General Lechitsky, having taken Czernowitz, swept Bukovina, and sent his Cossacks over the Carpathians, was turning northeast, but seemed to be held up by the floods of the Dniester. He had just got the important railroad junction of Kolomea and cut the easternmost of the lines that from Lemberg cross the Carpathians into Hungary.

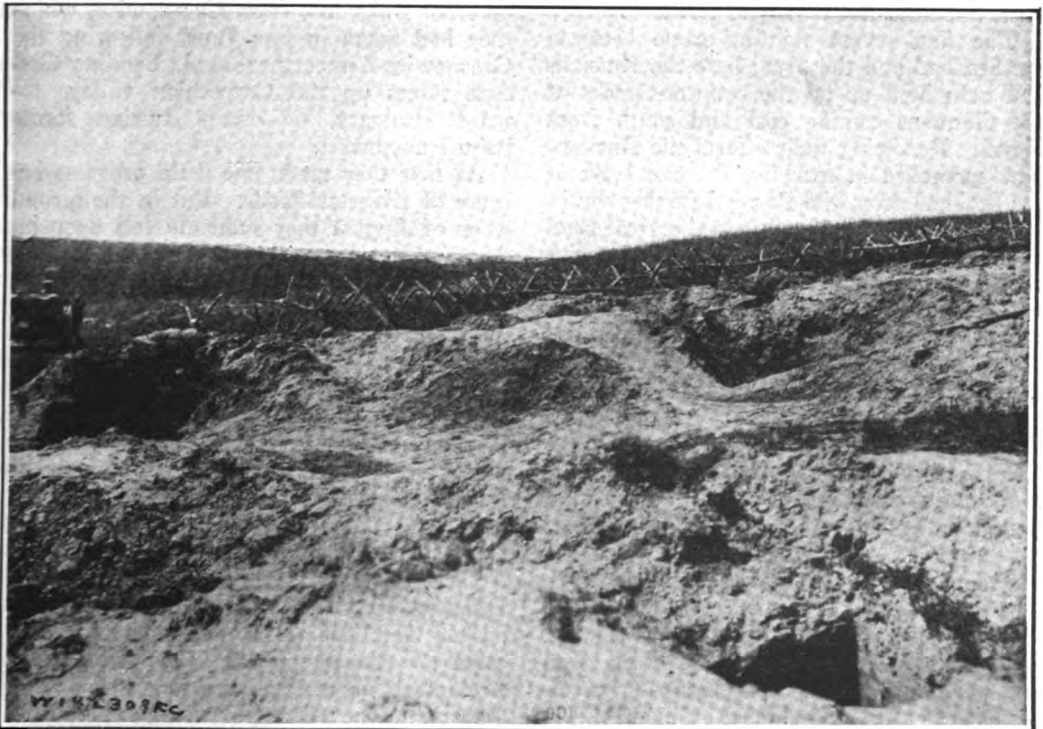
North of the Pripet Marshes the Rus-



International Film Service

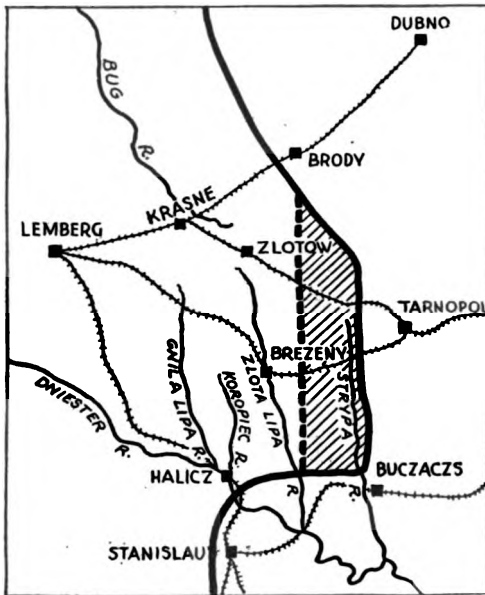
THE RUSSIAN OBJECTIVE—LEMBERG

(A view of the main thoroughfare of the Galician capital, toward which Russian progress is now directed)



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

AUSTRIAN DUG-OUTS AND TRENCHES TAKEN BY THE RUSSIANS DURING THEIR ADVANCE
(Showing the shapeless mass into which the earthworks have been battered by the artillery)



THE GALICIAN FRONT

sians under Evert and Kuropatkin were attacking the Germans under Hindenburg, but apparently with the sole purpose of preventing the despatch of troops from north to south. This action continued through August, but need not detain us now.

The first severe fighting came between the Stokhod and the Styr; here the Russians had been held up by the counter-attacks of the Germans coming east and south from Kovel. Renewing their efforts the Russians now succeeded in reaching the east bank of the Stokhod from the Pripet Marshes southward and actually passed it in the great bend where it approaches the Styr. At this point they were less than twenty miles from Kovel, which again seemed in danger. But after a few days the fighting in this sector died down and the attention of the world was directed toward Lemberg again.

In June the Russians, having taken Dubno, pushed down the Rowno-Dubno-Lemberg railroad until they approached the old frontier east of Brody. Here they were halted. But in late July fresh troops coming south up the Styr Valley from Lutsk defeated and routed an Austrian force, which had taken position behind the Lipa, a small stream, which enters the Styr from the west. Pursuing this force the Russians came in on the northern flank of the Austro-Germans standing before Brody and these in turn were driven west upon the upper Sereth, behind which they rallied. Brody fell and several

villages about it, and the Russians pushed onward, aiming at the flank of Bothmer's army, mostly German, which was standing along the Strypa line from the Dniester to the front of Brody.

This new Russian menace was aimed at the Lemberg-Krasne-Tarnopol railroad, which was one of the main lines of communication of Bothmer and was now but a few miles behind the Austrian front west of Brody. Several times during the month it was announced that Russian cavalry had cut this line, but apparently these were only raiding parties. Once more the Russians seem to have been checked. Their advance slowed down and there was long fighting on the banks of the Sereth. Bothmer here just managed to save his flank. And despite this menace he also held on to the line of the Strypa, the one portion of the Austro-German front which so far endured, after two months of the Russian offensive.

VI. STANISLAU

But the fate of the Strypa line was decided by the great successes of the Russians to the south, which placed Lemberg in graver danger than at any time. In July, the Russians under Lechitsky, had taken Kolomea, coming up from Bukovina, from Czernowitz, which they had taken in late June, following the Czernowitz-Lemberg railroad. Sending Cosack forces up the Carpathian valleys toward Hungary, the main Russian forces turned northwest.

At first they made but little progress because of Dniester floods. But in the second week of August they suddenly fell upon an Austrian army standing in front of the important railroad junction of Stanislaw, one flank on the Dniester and the other toward the Carpathians. The Austrians were routed and lost above 20,000 in prisoners. Fleeing west they abandoned Stanislaw and the crossings of the rivers, opening the road for a Russian advance to Halicz, which stands in the angle between the Gnila Lipa and the Dniester, seventy miles southeast of Lemberg, and is regarded as the key to the Galician capital.

Coincident with this success south of the Dniester, Russian forces on the north bank pushed west, got across the Zlota Lipa, and came up toward Halicz from the east, as Lechitsky's main force was coming up from the southeast. This put Halicz doubly in danger and as these lines are written its fall is forecast. But even more immediate was

the effect of this victory upon Bothmer's army standing along the west bank of the Strypa. Threatened from the north by the troops coming out of Brody and crossing the Sereth, threatened from the south by Russian troops, coming out of Buczacz and already across both the Strypa and the Zlota Lipa, his position was too precarious to hold longer.

Sunday, August 13, then saw the official notice that Bothmer had quit the line of the Strypa and was going back upon the next possible position, that behind the Zlota Lipa, but this was already turned to the south by the Russians who had crossed the river near its junction with the Dniester. Hence the ultimate destination of Bothmer seemed to be the Gnila Lipa, which enters the Dniester at Halicz and flowing south actually prolongs the defensive line of the Bug. This is the last line of defense for Lemberg; if it is lost Lemberg must fall. And Bothmer's retreat gave over the last portion of the front the Austro-Germans had occupied when the Russians began their drive in June.

As the situation stood in mid-August the Russians were approaching Halicz from the south and southeast. They were advancing down the Brody-Lemberg railroad from the Sereth crossings, which they had forced, and they were coming due west from Tarnopol, following the Austro-German forces of Bothmer, who was falling back directly upon Lemberg. The problem was this: Could the Austro-Germans rally their forces behind the Bug, the Gnila Lipa, and some position from Halicz south to the Carpathians? If they could they would be able to save Lemberg and bring the war in the East back to a stationary condition.

But if they were unable to do this, if the Russians were able to get Halicz and thus cross the Gnila Lipa before Bothmer could get behind it, then it seemed inevitable that Austrian retreat would have to pass beyond Lemberg and the whole of Eastern Galicia would be reconquered by the Russians.

So far as one could see the Galician campaign was now working out precisely as had the great Austro-German offensive of the previous summer. Then the Germans had won a terrific battle at the Dunajec. They had pierced the Russian lines and destroyed a Russian army. Afterward, the problem was whether or not the Russians could regroup their armies and stand in some new position, before the dislocation of the Galician army affected the armies on the whole front from the Carpathians to the Baltic.

This question could not be answered for weeks. There were moments when it seemed as if the Russians would be able to stand behind the San and again behind the Grodek Lake line west of Lemberg.

In the end, however, the Russians failed to establish a new line and after weeks of obscurity the situation was finally revealed, when all the Russian armies were compelled to begin the retreat that carried them to Riga, Pinsk, and Tarnopol. Now we cannot yet see whether the Austrians will be able to stand somewhere and limit the effect of their June defeats to Galicia and Volhynia, but we can see that they have so far failed to do this, that they are approaching the last line on which they can do it, and the loss of the Gnila Lipa line may cost, not merely Lemberg, but the whole of German conquests east of the Niemen and the Bug.

VII. ON THE SOMME

There remains to me now only very brief space to discuss the operations along the Somme. They have been interesting, but have had no locally conclusive results as yet. They have held German troops to a number estimated at from 600,000 to 800,000 stationary. They have so far contributed to Russian progress in the East and to Italian victory in the South. This was what Grant did in Virginia in 1864.

Actually the British have in four weeks moved about a mile north on a front of six or seven. They have come up over the crest of the one considerable natural obstacle in their pathway, the Albert Ridge. They now hold the entire crest; they are beginning to flow down the northern side toward Bapaume, six miles away. They have taken several villages, Pozieres the most important, near the highest point in the Albert Ridge, but they have not pierced the German lines, and it is necessary to remember that the chance of piercing a fortified front in this war diminishes in direct ratio to the length of time you are delayed in doing it, because this delay enables your enemy to prepare lines behind the imperilled front.

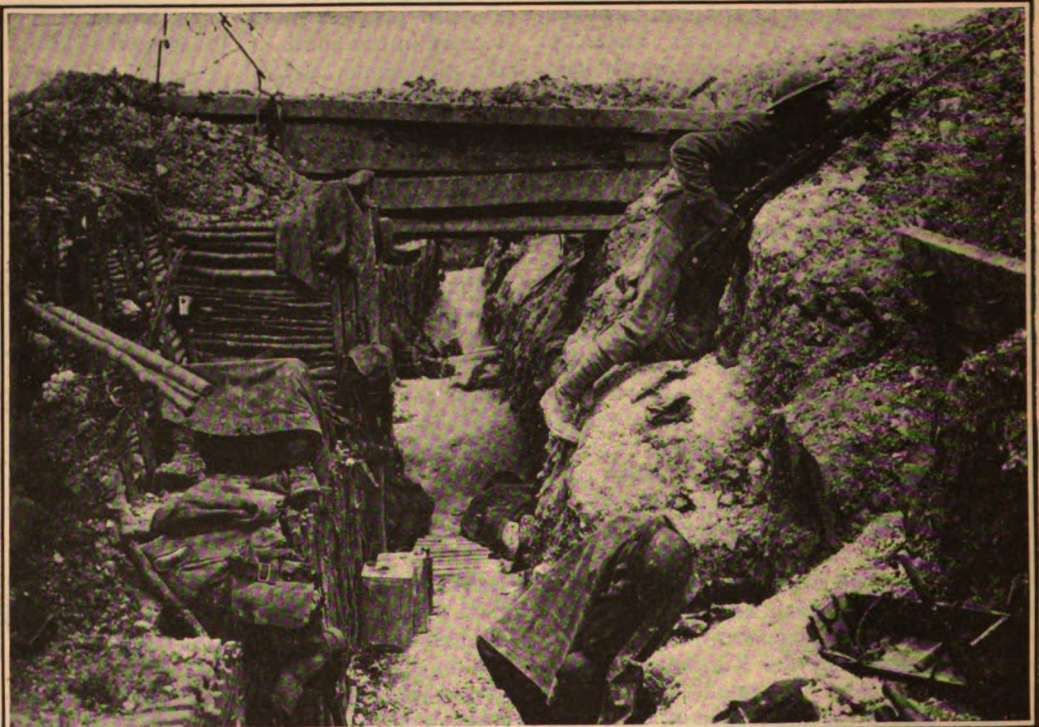
This is the lesson of Verdun. So far the British have not advanced further in Picardy than the Germans did in Lorraine in a similar period after their first thrust at Verdun. Holding back the Germans after the first thrust enabled the French to prepare lines, which endured the critical attack of April 9, and thus to save Verdun. It is not yet time to say that the British have lost the



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ONE OF THE RESULTS OF FIRING "A MILLION SHELLS A DAY"

In this official photograph from the French War Office is graphically shown the result of the bombardment of a German gun position—the gun and all its protecting works having been shattered to fragments



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A CLOSE VIEW OF A BRITISH TRENCH AT ORVILLIERES

Someone always is on the lookout while the other men are resting. (From an official British Government photograph)

chance to pierce the German lines, but it is well to recognize that their chances are diminishing as they fail to do it from week to week.

The same is true of the French who have been limiting their activity to thrusting east on their narrow front north of the Somme, seeking to turn the Germans out of Peronne by outflanking them. As I write these lines the French have succeeded in penetrating the third German line west and southwest of Combles, but it is no longer certain that this third line is the last German line. On the contrary there is every reason to believe that the Germans have several lines behind this now, and there is no suggestion that the French are yet nearing the point where they will be through the German trenches and in the open.

Remember that we may any day read that the British and French have got through. It is unlikely, but it is not impossible, and if they do get through then the Western field will become the most interesting and important. But short of this it is well to recall that what the French and British are accomplishing is not the reconquest for vast areas, but the holding of big German forces on the Western front and the consequent starvation of the Austrian and German lines in the East and the South. They are inflicting heavy losses—not larger than they are suffering, probably materially less, just as Grant's losses were far greater than Lee's, but these losses, borne mainly by the British, the British can better afford than can the Germans afford what it is costing them to hold on. Above all, it is the strain the Allies are putting upon German stocks of munitions, by their western attack, which is helping the Russians and the Italians at this juncture.

Read Lee's comments in the last days of his defense of Petersburg, when the North was discouraged and the South frankly exultant in the belief that Grant could never break through and you will have the picture as the Allies see it and you will have exactly the idea of what the British and French are doing in the West, or trying to do. If the parallel is a good one, we may

have many months before there is any break in the West, but the effect of the western operations will be unmistakable in the East and so far it has been unmistakable.

Looking over the whole field you may conclude that the Allies have agreed to make their main effort this summer and fall against Austria. Russia and Italy are to attack Austria; the French and British in due course of time will endeavor to reach the Austrian frontier coming up from Salonica. But now the mission of the French and the British is to occupy Germany so completely that she will be unable to go to the aid of her ally. Had they been able to do this in the spring of 1915, Austria would have collapsed in the Carpathian fighting. Had they been able to do this after the Marne and Lemberg, Austria would have collapsed in the first six months of the war. Everything now depends upon the amount of help Germany can give that ally she has twice saved. The amount of aid she can give is conditioned on the amount of pressure she has to meet in the West.

The Allies are now engaged in putting into operation a thoroughly coördinated plan for winning the war. It seems to be a plan which has for its main element the elimination of Austria by defeat and exhaustion. If this be the case the striking and impressive work will be done by Russia with Italian contributions. If Austria is put out, then the German problem can be tackled next year. Meantime France and Britain are bending all their energies to holding as many Germans as possible on the West front. In doing this they may get through and expel the Germans from France and even from Belgium, but this presupposes a German weakness that is not disclosed or to be expected. The measure of Allied success now must be had in the East, not the West, by the Austrian situation, not the German, and the most important thing that the Somme fighting can accomplish, the immobilizing of German masses when Austrian necessity is dire, is a thing that will not be disclosed in any official reports of trenches taken or lost, villages stormed or destroyed from the Somme to the Scarpe.



ISLANDS OF THE CARIBBEAN

THE DANISH WEST INDIES: KEYS TO THE CARIBBEAN

BY T. LOTHROP STODDARD

THE pending treaty for the purchase of the Danish West Indies is a matter of much greater importance than might appear from a hasty dip into statistical tables or a casual glance at the map. As a matter of fact, the \$25,000,000 which we are offering for them will be money well spent, for these small islands possess such strategic importance as to be literally keys to the Caribbean Sea and vital links in the chain safeguarding the Panama Canal.

Strategic Value of the West Indies

The Danish West Indies consist of the three islands, St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John. They are tiny bits of land, their total area being only 138 square miles. St. Croix and St. John are extremely fertile, the former producing the famous "bay-rum." St. Thomas, though less fortunate in the matter of soil, nevertheless holds within its tiny self a pearl of great price—the deep, landlocked harbor of Charlotte Amalie, the

most magnificent natural naval base in the whole West Indies with the exception of the Dominican bay of Samana and the Haitian port of Môle-Saint-Nicolas. I shall not soon forget the impression of strategic power which the place made upon me when I visited Charlotte Amalie in the spring of 1912. Our 16,000-ton liner slipped in through the narrow opening from the sea and came to anchor in a broad sheet of mirror-like blue water guarded by a continuous circuit of lofty hills. First impressions in this case proved correct, for I subsequently learned that military engineers agree in stating that the conformation of these hills is so remarkably adapted to defensive purposes that a very moderate sum expended upon fortifications would render the island absolutely impregnable. In fact, St. Thomas has often been called the Gibraltar of America.

And St. Thomas' natural strength is still further enhanced by its strategic situation. There are only three gateways which deep-

draft ships from Europe employ to enter the Caribbean: (1) the Windward Passage, between Cuba and San Domingo; (2) the Mona Passage, between San Domingo and Porto Rico; (3) the Virgin Passage, between Porto Rico and the tangled archipelago of the Lesser Antilles. The first two are already half way under our control; with the acquisition of the Danish West Indies the last great gateway to the Caribbean would fall entirely into our hands, for St. Thomas stands squarely athwart the Virgin Passage and no hostile fleet could safely pass the menace of its guns.

It is indeed a lordly sea to which these water-gates give access. The Caribbean, lying like a huge elongated quadrilateral between the island-chains to north and east and the mainlands to south and west, stretches nearly 2000 miles from the Yucatan Channel at the entrance of the Gulf of Mexico to the eastern barrier-chain of the Windward Islands, while its average breadth from north to south is over 500 miles. The Caribbean thus well deserves its happy title, "The American Mediterranean."

Growth of Our Caribbean Interests

Until the close of the last century, our interests in the Caribbean were more potential than tangible. However keen our solicitude for its destinies may have been, not one of its myriad islands flew our flag or acknowledged our protection. The Spanish War gave us our first territorial foothold in the American Mediterranean. Porto Rico then became American soil, while Cuba, greatest of all the Caribbean Islands and the portal to our exposed Gulf coasts, was definitely safeguarded from all possibility of foreign aggression.

The Spanish War was, however, only the prologue to a still more momentous departure. In 1904 we acquired our rights at the Isthmus of Panama and began the construction of the great interoceanic canal. It is not too much to say that future historians will regard this as one of those few truly great events which change the whole current of world-history. We should do our best to banish from our minds the picture of the Nineteenth Century Caribbean. That depressing vision of ruined islands rising from a lethargic sea has gone to return no more. We have dug the "Big Ditch" at Panama—and have thereby transformed the Caribbean from a dead-end basin into the greatest ocean highway of the world. The

results of this transformation are startling in their far-reaching immensity. The mighty currents of world-trade which have so long passed through the old Mediterranean will presently sweep through the new Mediterranean. The Panama Canal will soon be the great sluice-gate for the foaming tides of East and West. But, because of this very fact, the sluice-gate must be well buttressed and the hand of the gate-keeper must be strong. The Panama Canal is the greatest single commercial and strategic prize in the world. It has enormously increased our national responsibilities in the very quarter where they were already so great before.

American Hegemony of the West Indies

From the earliest days of our history we have considered American hegemony of the Caribbean one of the axioms of our foreign policy. Up to the present our claim has encountered no serious opposition. This was due to a series of, to us, undoubtedly fortunate circumstances. During the early decades of the Nineteenth Century the fall in the price of the West Indian staple, sugar, together with the abolition of slavery, brought on an economic collapse all over the Caribbean. The very islands which in the Eighteenth Century were the choicest land-plots on the globe thereby lost all value and became instead annoying burdens on the exchequers of their European owners. Under these circumstances it was perfectly natural that no European power should care to challenge our assertion of paramountcy over a region which had become rather a burden than a benefit. In fact, it is more than probable that if, about the year 1900, we had tactfully approached the various European nations with West Indian possessions, we could have purchased all their holdings at figures which, in view of future possibilities, would have proved very reasonable sums.

However, nothing of the kind was attempted except in the case of those very Danish West Indies for which we are negotiating to-day, and the history of our previous failure to acquire them throws a significant side-light on the dangers latent in the Caribbean.

History of the Negotiations with Denmark

It was in the year 1901 that the Danish Government offered to sell us the islands for

the very moderate sum of \$5,000,000. The islands were then (as they still are) in a deplorable economic condition. The population had sunk in fifty years from 45,000 to 32,000, and was kept from complete economic collapse only by the solicitude of the home government, whose subventions were, however, a perceptible drain upon the treasury of the small Danish nation. In 1867 Denmark had already offered us the islands for \$7,500,000 and we had declined the offer owing to the strong anti-imperialist sentiment then prevalent in Congress. In 1901, however, American public sentiment was overwhelmingly in favor of the purchase: the hitch came this time from the European side. The Danish people were, it is true, favorable to the sale, and the Danish Lower House endorsed the treaty by a substantial majority. But in the aristocratic Upper House opposition developed which finally prevented ratification. In part this opposition was due to patriotic pride, but what really caused the rejection of the treaty was undoubtedly pressure from Germany. German activities in the Danish West Indies have for years been distinctly disquieting to our susceptibilities.

Shortly after the failure of the 1901 purchase-treaty, the great *Hamburg-Amerika* steamship corporation made St. Thomas its West Indian headquarters, constructed extensive docks and coal-depots, and made itself at home in a fashion not at all to the liking of the local Danish authorities. Whether Germany's attitude towards the islands has changed as a result of the present war we do not yet know; we will undoubtedly be able to form a pretty clear idea by watching the attitude toward the present purchase negotiations of those Danish elements which showed themselves amenable to German influence in 1901-03. It is to be hoped that the present purchase treaty will be ratified and that the islands will soon be safe under our flag. No one knows what is going to happen in Europe. It is by no means impossible that Denmark may be dragged into the vortex of the present war, and in such a case the fate of her colonies would be highly problematical. We certainly could not permit the transfer of the Danish West Indies to any other power whatsoever, nor could we tolerate any veiled protectorate such as would be implied were some European power to compel Denmark to grant an extensive concession to some great corporation; say, an amplification of the present status of the *Hamburg-Amerika* at Char-

lotte Amalie. We have already shown what our attitude would be in such a contingency by the recent "Lodge Resolution" over a proposed Mexican concession to a Japanese corporation at Magdalena Bay.

Holland's Desirable Possessions

The same reasons which give us cause for disquietude regarding the Danish West Indies should make us watch with extreme solicitude the Caribbean possessions of another small European Power—Holland. The Dutch West India islands are divided into two widely scattered groups. The first of these groups, comprising the islands of Saba, St. Eustachius, and St. Martin, are in the Leeward Island archipelago, not very far to the eastward of the Danish West Indies. Little better than rocks, these tiny islets possess no good harbors and are without importance. Far different is the case with the second group, the islands of Curaçao, Bonaire, and Aruba, situated far to the south, just off the coast of Venezuela. Not only are they fairly large islands, with a combined area of nearly 400 square miles and a population of 50,000, but their strategic position is one of great importance. Situated as they are off the Venezuelan coast, their possession by a great power would dominate La Guayra, the port of Caracas, Venezuela's capital. A little money would turn the harbor of Curaçao into a naval base dangerously near the Panama Canal.

Holland, even more than Denmark, is to-day menaced with engulfment by the European War, in which case no one knows what might be the fate of her colonies. We certainly should permit no European Power to establish itself at Curaçao. Holland is under a frightful financial strain to-day. It is not at all unlikely that the Dutch Government would be willing to part with its West Indian possessions. The price would undoubtedly be large, for Curaçao has good commercial possibilities especially since the opening of the Panama Canal. But we could certainly afford to be generous with our old friend Holland, and the money would be well spent if it obviated the grave crisis which would certainly arise from any attempted European transference of the Dutch West Indies.

Britain's Strong Foothold

The bulk of Europe's holdings in the Caribbean are, however, in the hands of two

great powers—England and France. Next to our own, Great Britain's position in the Caribbean is indubitably the strongest—and not so very far behind us, at that. Indeed, in terms of square miles and population, the Stars and Stripes are quite outshadowed by the Union Jack. Our only formal Caribbean colony is Porto Rico, an island of 3600 square miles with a population of 1,100,000, whereas the British West Indies, including the continental foothold of British Honduras, total nearly 21,000 square miles with a population of close on 2,000,000. And their political significance is even greater than these mere statistics would indicate. Nearly every Caribbean waterway is flanked by British territory. The northern coasts of Cuba and San Domingo, and for that matter, the east coast of Florida to boot, are blanketed by the immense Bahama archipelago, though these sandy keys are so low and devoid of deep-water harbors as to offer no chance for the establishment of a first-class naval base.

Quite different is the case within the Caribbean itself. To begin with, just south of the most important of all the entrances to the Caribbean—the Windward Passage between Cuba and San Domingo, lies the great island of Jamaica, squarely blocking the direct road to Panama. Jamaica also flanks the highway from New Orleans to Panama, while just to the westward, on the mainland, British Honduras takes it on the other flank as well. Of the great island-chain known as the Lesser Antilles which curves southeastward from Porto Rico to Venezuela on the South American mainland, the vast majority of the links are red.

Fifteen years ago, as we have said, we might possibly have obtained the British West Indies, either by purchase or by exchange for the Philippines. At that time the islands had sunk to the very nadir of economic misery. Sugar, their universal staple, was a drug in the market, and free-trade England offered them no hope for the future. Their natural market was the United States, and their poverty-stricken populations gazed longingly at the American tariff-wall. England gave them good government, but the white upper-classes were steadily drifting away to other fields while the great negro mass was sinking into apathetic wretchedness.

Since then, however, much has happened to improve the situation. The British West Indies have fairly "turned the corner" and have every prospect of a brighter day ahead. The production of new staples, such as ba-

nanas in Jamaica and cocoa in Trinidad has given these largest of the British islands something of their former agricultural prosperity. The demand for black labor at the Panama Canal and the American banana plantations in Central America has relieved the labor congestion in many of the smaller British islands such as Barbados. The winter tourist traffic from the United States is bringing in money. The opening of the Panama Canal is rousing everywhere a new stirring of life and hope. Lastly, the present war is knitting closer the bonds of empire. If England should abandon free trade for "Imperial preference" her West Indian colonies would obtain a market for their sugar sufficient to put them on a paying basis once more. There is also the possibility of tariff arrangements between the British West Indies and Canada, a great market growing in importance with every year. Altogether, it is safe to say that the British West Indies are firmly reknit into the fabric of the Empire and that the possibility of political separation has become a thing of the past.

France's Share in the Caribbean

The possessions of the other great European Power in the Caribbean, France, are in a much less happy situation. The French West Indies consist of the moderately large islands of Guadeloupe and Martinique, together with several other islets of slight importance. Their total area is about 1100 square miles with a population of 400,000, nearly all negroes and mulattoes. These islands are extremely fertile, and since they have access to the highly protected French home market one might expect them to be prosperous. Unfortunately their political and social condition is so bad that they are vegetating in misery and backwardness with no signs of a better future. The French West Indies are the victims of the Jacobin slogan of the French Revolution, "Liberty, Equality, Fraternity," applied without the least regard to special social and racial circumstances.

The French islands live under the régime known as "assimilation"; that is, they are considered ordinary French Departments, just as though they lay off the French coast and were inhabited by Frenchmen. They have complete local self-government, universal manhood suffrage, and send Senators and Deputies to sit in the French Parliament. The results have been tragically disastrous. The black and colored populations

of the West Indies have nowhere shown the political efficiency necessary for the successful working of modern democratic institutions. The other European nations have recognized this fact, and, while welcoming the collaboration of the superior minority of the natives, do not entrust the mass of the population with the full guidance of its political destinies. The French, however, have followed democratic theory to its logical consequences—and the result is a disgraceful state of affairs, threatening the very fabric of civilization and portending a relapse of the French islands into the anarchic barbarism of Haiti.

The French West Indies to-day groan under the tyranny of corrupt black demagogues backed by the most vicious and violent elements of the native population. The blotting out the city of St. Pierre by the great volcanic eruption of 1902 destroyed the center of culture and intelligence. It is almost impossible for a self-respecting man to do business or even to exist under present conditions. The few remaining whites are leaving the islands as fast as they can, and many of the better-class colored people are getting out as well. So far as we can judge, these unhappy islands have no future. The only bright spot in this gloomy picture is the fact that these islands need give us no uneasiness as regards the general political problem of the Caribbean.

France is a great power and regards these relics of her former American colonial empire with too much sentimental attachment ever to part with them to any other nation. Also France's foreign policy is so entirely divorced from the American hemisphere and France herself is so traditionally friendly to ourselves that we need have no apprehension that the French West Indies will ever be used in ways inimical to our position in the Caribbean.

This survey of the positions occupied by European nations in the Caribbean leads us to a consideration of the West Indian lands not subject to European control. Besides our own colony of Porto Rico, we find the two chief islands of the Caribbean, Cuba and San Domingo, emancipated from all European tutelage.

Conditions in Cuba

Cuba, largest of the West Indies, is an enormous island with an area of 44,000 square miles (almost the size of New York State), and a population of 2,500,000. It

stretches no less than 730 miles from east to west, while its average width is 50 miles. Commanding as it does both the main ocean highways to the Panama Canal and the entrance to the Gulf of Mexico, and being the seat of immense investments of foreign capital which would not tolerate anarchical conditions, we have safeguarded Cuba from both domestic convulsion and European intervention by the "Platt Amendment" whereby the Cuban Government undertakes to make no treaty with any foreign power endangering its independence, to contract no debts for which the current revenue would not suffice, and to concede to the United States Government a right of intervention on the appearance of revolutionary conditions. Many of the Cubans undoubtedly resent bitterly this American tutelage, but there is no other way out of the situation.

In its brief history the Republic of Cuba has already shown conclusively that it is not yet able to walk alone. The Cubans have displayed the same violence and political instability which have reduced all the other independent Spanish-American republics abutting on the Caribbean save Costa Rica to an appalling abyss of ruin and degradation. It has also an acute black problem which, if left to itself, would almost certainly result in a frightful race-war that might turn the eastern end of the island into a second Haiti. The only way to remedy existing conditions is to keep order and gain time. Every year of peace means fresh development of natural resources by foreign capital and the improvement of the native stock by immigration, especially by the large and exceedingly good Spanish immigration now pouring into the island. Increasing prosperity means more public money for roads, railways and schools. The inevitable result must be a new generation brought up in an atmosphere of peace and prosperity, educated, and with a stake in the country which it will hesitate to squander at the behest of ambitious revolutionary agitators.

Hopeless Haiti

The neighboring island of San Domingo should serve Cuba as the traditional "horrible example." The island is politically divided into two "republics"—French-speaking Haiti and Spanish-speaking Santo Domingo, thus perpetuating its former division between France and Spain. It is a large and beautiful island, naturally the most fertile of all the West Indies, with a

total area of 28,000 square miles, about the size of the State of Maine. Its agricultural possibilities can be imagined when we remember that the present Haitian area, though the smaller and perhaps less favored portion of the island, produced enough tropical products under French rule at the close of the eighteenth century to supply the wants not only of France but of the half of Europe as well.

To-day Haiti is the plague-spot of the Caribbean, torn by a wild riot of senseless "revolutions." Every vestige of its former prosperity has vanished, the fabric of civilization is rent to tatters, and Christianity itself is disappearing, the real religion of the people being "Vaudoux," or African serpent-worship, its priests (a depraved clique of "medicine-men") holding the people in a grip of terror by an elaborate system of incantations, spells, and poisoning. The "government" consists of alternate gangs of ignorant black "generals" backed by hordes of bloodthirsty ruffians called "armies." The particular gang in power plunders the people to the limit of human endurance until ousted by a rival gang, greedy for the coveted spoils.

Santo Domingo Politically Convalescent

Across the border, in Spanish-speaking Santo Domingo, while social conditions had never gotten so terrible, politics were in almost as hopeless a condition ten years ago. Santo Domingo is not a black republic like Haiti. Whites, it is true, are not numerous, but neither are negroes. The bulk of the population are mulattoes who never lost the traditions of Spanish civilization, as the Haitian negroes did that of France. However, they showed the same political incapacity as the other Caribbean peoples, and the land sunk steadily into an ever-deepening welter of revolutionary anarchy. By the beginning of the present century, Santo Domingo became quite incapable either of paying interest on its foreign debts or of protecting foreign capital invested in the country. This soon became an alarming matter for ourselves. Several European governments showed plainly that they had no intention of permitting their investors to be ruined by Dominican anarchy, and prepared openly for intervention. Faced by this critical emergency, the American Government acted quickly and decisively.

In 1907, President Roosevelt and the Dominican President Morales signed an

agreement by which the Dominican customs passed under American control. An American banking syndicate granted the Dominican Government a \$20,000,000 loan with which the outstanding foreign claims were paid off or converted. The payment of this new loan was secured by the customs receipts collected by the American administrators. The result was magical. In these revolution-ruined lands the custom houses are practically the only tangible assets. As soon as the opposition "generals" understood that no more customs looting would be allowed, the main incentive to "revolution" automatically vanished, and five whole years actually elapsed without a single serious political disturbance. Of late, it is true, disorders have again broken out, but the American Government quickly showed that it would stand no nonsense, columns of marines broke up the insurgents, and Santo Domingo's political convalescence was resumed. So richly has nature endowed this fertile land that even the few years of peace since 1907 have wrought amazing changes and laid the foundation of a genuine prosperity. Unfortunately, the development of the Dominican people will probably be much slower than that of their natural resources. A hundred years of anarchy have profoundly demoralized the national character. It will probably be several generations before the Dominicans can be trusted to walk alone.

Haiti as a Cause of European Complications

The wisdom of our Dominican policy has been strikingly proven by recent events in Haiti. Had it not been for the European war, we should have had serious difficulties with at least one European power, and we might possibly have had a diplomatic controversy with a combination of European nations. For several years Haiti has been absolutely bankrupt and in such chronic political convulsions as to jeopardize all foreign interests. These interests are extensive. They have also been passing into the hands of that European people which has shown itself most aggressive and least regardful of our Caribbean susceptibilities—the Germans. Foreign interests in Haiti used to be predominantly French, but about the close of the last century Germany turned her attention to Haiti, and at the beginning of the European war Haiti had become practically a German commercial sphere.

On the very eve of the war two disquiet-

ing events appeared to herald the long-impending European intervention in Haiti. On May 6th, 1914, a British cruiser appeared before the Haitian capital, Port-au-Prince, and the British minister presented an ultimatum regarding certain unsatisfied English damage claims, to which the frightened Haitian government instantly capitulated. That same day the German minister negotiated the preliminaries of an arrangement with the Haitian government, whereby certain German financiers were to loan Haiti \$2,000,000, receiving in return control over certain important customs houses and the right to construct a commercial coaling station at Môle-Saint-Nicolas, the finest natural naval base in the whole West Indies, and the key to the Windward Passage—the high-road to Panama. It is certain that we should never have permitted the Haitian government to grant either of these concessions. Probably our government said as much to Berlin, for the affair was quickly hushed up and nothing ever came of it. Still, it is significant as showing which way the wind was blowing.

An American Protectorate Needed

Still later, in July, 1914, both the French and German governments informed Washington that they desired to have some share in the future control of Haitian customs. The German note was particularly strong. It informed our government that some attention must be paid to German public opinion, and stated categorically that unless Germany were included in a Haitian customs control she would not understand any other arrangement that might be made. This was nothing short of a direct challenge to what all the world knew was a cardinal principle of our foreign policy. Accordingly our government answered France and Germany with the equally categorical statement that no non-American interests could be admitted to any share in the control or administration of any independent American state. Such was the distinctly unpleasant diplomatic deadlock

which existed at the outbreak of the European war. We certainly should congratulate ourselves that the matter was then shelved by the pressure of other things.

That the lesson was not lost upon our government seems plain from the subsequent course of events. Affairs in Haiti continuing to go from bad to worse, we at last intervened energetically in August, 1915. Strong forces of sailors and marines occupied Port-au-Prince and other Haitian ports, and a practical ultimatum was presented providing for an American control over the Haitian customs for a period of ten years. Of course, this is only a beginning. Haiti is in such a welter of demoralized anarchy that nothing short of a protectorate will serve to set the country on its feet, and this may mean much trouble and expense. But the thing had got to be done if we are to avoid very serious entanglements after the close of the European war.

Our Obligations Under the Monroe Doctrine

The European war is for our whole Caribbean policy a period of grace which, if used, will probably place us in a secure position, but which, if neglected, may entail the most disastrous consequences. Whatever its outcome, the present struggle will engender an economic keenness and race for markets never known before. One of the world's richest undeveloped markets is the Caribbean area. Europe will certainly fling itself upon this tempting market with unprecedented energy, and will as certainly not tolerate anarchical conditions which would endanger its commercial activities. If we will see to it that law and order are maintained, well and good; our Caribbean hegemony will then probably not be challenged from any quarter. Otherwise there will be trouble, and big trouble. One thing is certain: the old dog-in-the-manger interpretation of the Monroe Doctrine, whereby we refused to civilize these islands ourselves or let anyone else do the civilizing has gone, never to return.



AMERICA AND THE RUSSO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE

BY K. K. KAWAKAMI

IN the conclusion of an alliance with Russia, Japanese diplomacy, after a series of serious blunders since the opening of the war, once again comes to its own as a factor in world politics.

Considered from a purely selfish point of view, Japan should not have leaped into the melee at the first call of England, but should have watched the developments of the situation at least for half a year. Picture in your mind what might have happened in that time. Germany's Far Eastern squadron, with Kiau-chow as its base of operation, would not only have harassed the Allies' trade, but would have become a grave menace to their Asiatic possessions as well as Canada. Had Japan waited until such a critical moment before joining hands with the Allies, her assistance would not have been misconstrued by any nation as an eagerness to push sinister ambitions, but would have been fully appreciated by the Powers lined up against Germany and Austria. Apparently Japanese diplomats failed to foresee that the titanic struggle was going to last for many months, and were anxious to make a short job of the reduction of Tsing-tao. Or could it have been that Okuma and Kato were influenced by the *Samurai* spirit, rather than that of diplomacy, and were actuated by sentiments of chivalry in hurrying to the relief of Japan's allies?

The second grave blunder was committed when Tokio pressed upon Peking those twenty-one demands last winter. Not that those demands were anything extraordinary or extravagant, but because the way the Japanese diplomats tried to put them through was reprehensible. To the layman, at any rate, it would seem that the same thing could have been accomplished in a manner far less objectionable to China and to outside powers.

With those glaring mistakes fresh in our minds we turn with great relief to the consummation of Russo-Japanese rapprochement in the new pact whose object is to secure each other's position in the Far East.

IS THE CONVENTION AN ALLIANCE?

To call the new convention an alliance is, perhaps, not quite correct. A treaty of alliance must provide mutual obligations on the part of the high contracting parties to render armed assistance to each other in case their respective interests are in danger.

The new Russo-Japanese convention contains no such provision. Let the convention tell its own tale:

First. Japan will not become party to any arrangement or political combination directed against Russia. Russia will not become party to any arrangement or political combination directed against Japan.

Second. In case the territorial rights or special interests in the Far East of one of the High Contracting Parties recognized by the other are menaced, Japan and Russia will act in concert on the measure to be taken in view of the support or co-operation necessary for the protection and defence of these rights and interests.

This is the text of the laconic instrument. We have yet to see what Russia and Japan really mean by "support or coöperation." Does it simply mean a moral support, or is it another phrase for armed assistance? If the purpose of diplomacy be, as it has too often been in the past, to make a treaty capable of two constructions, the convention may be an *entente cordiale* or a downright alliance, according to the convenience or inconvenience of the high contracting parties.

The most significant part of the convention lies in the wide application which it apparently permits. While it is obvious that the covenant aims chiefly to secure the respective interests of the contracting parties in Manchuria and Mongolia, its scope is not restricted to these two countries, but covers the entire Far East. Where are we to seek the *raison d'être* of such a comprehensive convention? Against what particular power or powers do Russia and Japan propose to protect their interests after the present war?

In spite of the fatuous efforts of certain American publicists and newspapers to create the impression that the convention is directed against the United States, its real objective

is Germany. Japan fears that Germany, smarting under the surrender of Kiau-chow, will let no opportunity pass unutilized to challenge Japan's political and commercial influence in China. At the peace conference that is to follow the war, Germany will employ every means to regain Kiau-chow, which Japan promises to restore to China with the consent of the Powers. Should she fail to regain Kiau-chow, she would by all means try to restore the Shantung railways now held by the Japanese. To forestall such eventualities it is of the foremost importance that Japan should enjoy the support not only of England but of Russia. As for the United States, neither Japan nor Russia fears her, though the Japanese advocate of "preparedness" may endeavor to conjure up the bogie of an "American peril."

WHY JAPAN NEEDS RUSSIA'S FRIENDSHIP

Viewed from the Japanese side, even greater reason than the German "menace" attaches to the new convention, and that is Japan's fear of Russia. This may sound paradoxical, but the situation can easily be explained.

Notwithstanding all insinuations indulged in by American newspapers that Japan has been increasing her armament with an eye upon the United States, no one familiar with Japan's real motives can doubt for a moment that her absorbing concern has been Russia's possible revenge upon her, as well as China's precarious condition, which threatens to become at any unexpected moment a storm center of international rivalry. Japan's victories over Russia in the war of 1904-5 were far from dealing a fatal blow to the Russian position in Manchuria. When the smoke of battle cleared away the Japanese found the gaunt figure of the Muscovite looming upon the horizon of Manchuria even more menacingly than before the war. After a sacrifice of a hundred thousand lives and a billion dollars in the titanic struggle, the Japanese succeeded in dislodging Russia only from one-fourth of Manchuria, leaving the remaining three-fourths in the clutches of the Muscovite. Not only was Russia permitted to strengthen her hold upon by far the greatest portion of Manchuria, but she embarked, immediately after the war, upon the gigantic scheme of converting the vast territory of Mongolia into her protectorate, thus hoping eventually to reach and dominate Peking.

In the vast empire scheme conceived by the Czar's military *entourages* in the historic

days of Viceroy Alexieff, nothing short of complete absorption of Manchuria and North China was Russia's aim. With his way in Manchuria blocked by the Japanese, the northern bear set another snowball rolling from the frozen shores of the Baikal in the direction of Mongolia. Who knows but that the snowball may yet roll on until it reaches the gulf of Chili by way of Peking? In the light of the history of Russian expansion such an apprehension is more than justifiable. It is, undoubtedly, with a view to preventing such an eventuality that Japan has been striving to establish a foothold in Eastern Inner Mongolia. In persuading China, in the treaty of May 25, 1915, to open Inner Mongolia to the trade and residence of foreigners, Japan hoped to erect a protecting wall between Peking and that section of Mongolia already dominated by Russia.

Japan has been taking every precaution to protect vulnerable points against any emergency that may develop from the Russian domination of Mongolia and North Manchuria. At the same time she has been fully aware that her resources are too limited to wage another war against the Northern Colossus. We must frankly confess that, in the war of 1904-5, her resources both in men and money had come to the verge of exhaustion before she had even approached the goal, thus compelling her to accept peace terms far from satisfactory to her. And when the peace treaty of Portsmouth was signed, the world was reluctant to give credit for what Japan had accomplished in the interest of the open door and integrity of China. On the contrary, she was made an object of suspicion and fear, and was charged with pursuing a policy which ran counter to the open-door doctrine enunciated and defended by the late Secretary Hay.

As a matter of fact it was not America which initiated the doctrine; neither did she make any serious effort to defend it when Russia was about to absorb Manchuria. Before Secretary Hay issued the famous "open-door" notes in September, 1899, and July, 1900, Great Britain enunciated the same principle. But both England and the United States, when confronted by the imminent danger of China's disruption, failed to back up the doctrine. Upon receipt of Secretary Hay's first note Russia not only expressed herself in favor of reserving for herself the right to levy special duties within her sphere of influence, but demurred to the American proposal with regard to harbor duties and

railway charges. With characteristic audacity she hoisted, on August 4, 1900, the Russian flag over the Chinese custom-house at Newchwang.

The Russian Administration at Dalny (now Dairen) refused the Americans the permission to build warehouses for the storage of American kerosene, and announced the intention of excluding American oil altogether from Manchuria. The Russian authorities looked upon the Americans with keen suspicion if they ventured farther than a couple of miles from Newchwang, and refused to recognize British passports in Manchuria, insisting that all British subjects traveling in that country must possess Russian passports. In April, 1903, the Czar demanded that the Peking government agree not to open any new port in Manchuria, or permit new consuls from any third power without previous consent of the Russian Government. Russia had also obtained the exclusive right to navigate the Amur, the Sungari, and the Ussuri. Thus isolating Manchuria from the outside world, Russia was busy pouring her troops into that country, and was preparing her way for the immediate absorption of a vast territory of 363,700 square miles.

Put to this test, what did America do? Not only did she not take any positive action to enforce the open-door policy, but she declined to assist Japan, the only nation determined to stay the Russian advance. In the early spring of 1901 Japan, alarmed by the ominous activities of Russia, approached England, Germany, and the United States with a view to securing their coöperation in preventing the Russian absorption of Manchuria. None gave encouraging reply. Even the United States, the very sponsor of the open-door policy, would go no further than offering "moral" support.

Thus Japan was compelled, alone and unaided, to challenge Russia, staking her very existence upon the issue of the combat. In the war that followed, Japanese blood soaked every inch of South Manchurian soil. When the conflict came to an end, Japan was rewarded with no praise, but found herself indicted by the very nations whose avowed principles of the open door in China she had so valiantly defended. The world apparently forgot that had it not been for the sword of the doughty Japanese the much-heralded open-door notes would have been converted into scraps of paper, and that the way would have been opened then and there for the disruption of China's huge territory.

Japan was frankly disgusted at the unreasonable attitude of the powers, and was convinced of the folly of assuming an antagonistic attitude towards Russia, which might oblige her once more to fight a single-handed battle with the Northern Colossus. She saw no alternative to a policy whose purpose was to secure her positions in Korea and Manchuria by establishing friendly relations with Russia.

There is another factor which has influenced the Japanese mind in favor of an *entente cordiale* with Russia. Japan must have Russia's coöperation to turn her Manchurian railways into a financial success. For some time after the war the Russian Government tried to cripple Japan's railway enterprise by refusing to establish any traffic connection between its eastern Chinese and Japan's South Manchuria railway. Without this connection the South Manchuria system could not expect to have any share in the inter-continental traffic between Europe and the Far East. How was Japan to attain this end without befriending Russia? She had borrowed of England \$20,000,000 for her railway enterprise in Manchuria. How was she to pay this debt if she did not take advantage of every opportunity that could be utilized without infringing upon the rights of other nations?

AMERICA'S INTEREST IN THE CONVENTION

As far as American interests are concerned, the new Russo-Japanese convention will make but little change in the present situation in the Far East. This is obvious not only from the text of the convention, but in the light of the motives which prompted the two powers to conclude it.

Long before the conclusion of the new pact America was unmistakably given to understand that any enterprise or investment, having political and commercial importance, could not be launched in Manchuria without due recognition of the preponderating interest held by Russia and Japan in that territory. This is not to say that Japan and Russia are anxious to bar out American enterprise from Manchuria. It simply means that America must not ignore this peculiar position, but must consult them before launching any scheme which will seriously affect the political and economic status of Manchuria.

That principle was fairly well established when Japan and Russia opposed the neutralization of the Manchurian railways proposed by Secretary Knox, and when they combated

the Chino-American project to construct a railway of 1000 miles between Chinchow and Aigun.

Secretary Knox's proposals with regard to the Manchurian railways did not emanate from any sinister motive, but were advanced with the best of intentions. His only fault was his failure to realize the singular political situation in Manchuria. To Japan, her railway holdings in Manchuria meant a loss of 100,000 lives and a cost of \$1,000,000,000. In the face of such an appalling sacrifice, it might well have been conceded that she had the right, as long as she conformed to the principles of the open door, to operate the railways, so that proceeds from the traffic might assist, if ever so little, in lightening the financial burden entailed by the war.

As for the Chinchow-Aigun railway scheme, Japan, in virtue of the Chino-Japanese protocol of 1905, had the right to veto it. She was, however, willing to waive the right and was ready to indorse the American enterprise on the condition that she be allowed to build a line to effect a junction between the South Manchuria system and the proposed Chino-American line. But Russia was uncompromising and was determined to put her foot upon any such scheme.

And so both the Chinchow-Aigun railway scheme and the proposal to neutralize the Manchurian railways bore no fruit. This unhappy incident dealt a serious blow to America's further enterprises in Manchuria. Had America realized more fully the singular position which Japan had attained in Manchuria through the ordeal of blood and fire, and shown herself more considerate in dealing with the Japanese in the initial stage of her Manchurian diplomacy, American capital and enterprise might have been welcomed at least in that section of Manchuria which had come under Japanese influence.

The new convention between Russia and Japan is not intended to put a ban upon American enterprise in the Far East. To be frank, the United States, thanks to her unfortunate diplomacy, made herself a negligible factor in Manchuria in the eyes of both Japan and Russia. If, in the future, America wishes to resume her activities in that country, she must be prepared to face facts as they are, and take Japan and Russia in confidence in launching any scheme of magnitude in that country.

America's objection to the Russo-Japanese entente is chiefly sentimental. Most Americans entertain innate dislike of Russia. Viewed in the lurid light of her exile system

and her oppression of the Jews, Russia presents an unpleasant picture.

JAPAN'S MATERIAL GAIN

When the new Russo-Japanese convention was made public both at Tokio and at Petrograd, it was rumored that the convention had attached to it a set of secret agreements. As a matter of fact there is nothing secret about these agreements, which will be made public at the proper moment.

Their substance may be summarized as follows:

(1) Russia cedes to Japan the Changchun-Taolaishao section (about 75 miles) of the Changchun-Harbin branch of the Manchurian railway. For this Japan pays Russia about \$7,000,000 in war supplies.

(2) Russia, with the consent of China, extends to Japan the privilege of navigating the Second Sungari River.

Of the two terms, the first is the more important. It will be recalled that at the peace conference at Portsmouth, Japan insisted upon securing the Russian railway from Port Arthur to Harbin, measuring some 576 miles. Russia, however, strenuously opposed the Japanese demand, and agreed to cede only 436 miles between Port Arthur and Changchun. Japan has ever since been coveting the remaining 140 miles from Changchun to Harbin, for that section of the line traverses the heart of a rich agricultural country producing enormous quantities of beans, Manchuria's premier product.

No less important is the newly acquired privilege of navigating the Second Sungari River. In virtue of the Aigun treaty of 1858, Russia has hitherto enjoyed the exclusive right to navigate the Amur, the Sungari, and the Ussuri rivers. Now, the Second Sungari River, which is the largest tributary of the main Sungari, traverses the Japanese sphere of influence, and yet the Japanese have been denied the privilege of sharing with the Russians and Chinese in the benefits offered by that great artery of trade. The Second Sungari originates in the Chang-Pai-Shan, the Eternal White Mountains, on the Korean border, and becomes navigable for vessels of shallow draught at the city of Kirin, the capital of Kirin Province, about three hundred miles from the point of its confluence with the main Sungari. Kirin is fitly termed by the natives the "Inland Dockyard" of Manchuria, as it is the center of the shipbuilding industry, producing numerous junks to be used on the Sungari River.

THE RURAL CREDITS LAW AS ENACTED

BY PAUL V. COLLINS

THE much discussed Rural Credits Law, as finally passed, and signed by President Wilson on July 17, was not the same in detail as when it left the guardianship of Senator Hollis in its triumphal march through the Senate, although its fundamental principles remained intact. Its provisions are so multifarious that scarcely a member of Congress, nor a writer, has been able to state them accurately, and those who base their criticisms on what the bill contained several days prior to final conference are likely to flounder in a maze of error.

Yet the spine and ribs are there as constructed by its creators, namely, the dual system—First the coöperative system with units to be formed by farmers who desire to borrow, organizing local coöperative "National Farm Loan Associations" comprising any ten or more farmers whose mortgages must aggregate \$20,000 or more. These units are to operate through a "Federal Land Bank" and there are to be twelve such banks, the country to be divided into twelve districts, as in the case of the Reserve Bank System, although these districts will not necessarily be coterminate with the Reserve Bank Districts.

Second, the joint-stock bank system, not at all coöperative, but capitalistic and for profit to its stockholders. These joint-stock banks will have no connection with the twelve Federal Land Banks, nor with the local "National Farm Loan Associations," but will be in direct competition with that coöperative system; their interest will be to discourage coöperation.

The two systems will be under one general control of the Farm Loan Board, consisting of the Secretary of the Treasury, ex officio, and four members appointed by the President of the United States—two from each political party. This board has power to appoint appraisers, examiners, and registrars, who will be public officials. At first it will also appoint the directors and officers of the twelve Federal Land Banks,

but in course of time the stock of the Land Banks will pass to the ownership of the National Farm Loan Associations, and the directors and officers of the banks will then be chosen by the representatives of the coöperative Farm Loan Associations. In the meanwhile all appointees will be selected by the Farm Loan Board regardless of the civil service, and since every farm to be mortgaged, throughout the nation, must be inspected by one or more of these appraisers, it is clear that a considerable army of appointees is to be built up, outside of civil-service rules. After it is organized, it will be taken into the shelter of civil service, by executive order.

How capitalized: Each Federal Land Bank will have a capital of \$750,000 at the start. After the capital stock subscription books have been open to the public for thirty days, to give investors the form of an opportunity to buy the stock (although they are never to have any voice in the management) then the Government will take all the stock, not privately subscribed, so the Government will invest \$9,000,000 in the stock of the twelve banks, since no one expects any private investments. The Government is not to receive any dividend on this stock, but it is provided that the stock will be purchased automatically by the local National Farm Loan Associations, with funds to be furnished by the borrowers. Dividends may be paid on stock held by others than the Government if there are any net profits.

How loans are to be made: A loan can be made only to farmers or prospective farmers, upon first mortgage on farms, to the amount of 50 per cent. of the appraised value of the land irrespective of improvements, and 20 per cent. of the value of improvements. Appraisal is first made by a committee of fellow farmers, members of the Farm Loan Association, who must agree unanimously; then it must be approved by an appraiser sent out by the district Federal Land Bank. Before a loan is made, the borrower must invest 5 per cent. of the amount

¹ See also articles in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, for April and May, 1916.

of the loan in stock in the Farm Loan Association, which holds the stock in trust as security to cover its risk in endorsing the loan. And the Association must invest an equal amount in the stock of the Federal Land Bank, which holds the stock as security, with the first mortgage. Originally it was planned that the mortgage should be made to the Farm Loan Association and by it sold, with the Association endorsement, to the Federal Land Bank, but this was changed in conference, and now the mortgage is made payable directly to the Federal Land Bank, but it bears the endorsement of the Farm Loan Association, through which it is negotiated.

The stock carries "double liability," *i. e.*, borrowers are all liable for an extra 5 per cent., besides the 5 per cent. they invest in the stock, to cover any losses. When they pay their loans in full, the stock will be redeemed at par.

While each Federal Land Bank has a capitalization of \$750,000 at the outset, this is only its minimum capital, and as soon as it begins to make loans, as each loan carries with it a stock investment of 5 per cent. the bank's stock begins at once to increase, until the new stock belonging to the Farm Loan Associations equals that held by the Government, making a total of \$1,500,000, after which 25 per cent. of all additional proceeds from the sale of stock to the borrowers (the Farm Loan Associations) will be applied to retiring the Government stock. By the time all Government stock is retired, the total capitalization of a Federal Land Bank will be \$4,500,000, less the redeemed Government stock (\$750,000) or \$3,750,000 net. The bank is authorized to sell debenture bonds based on farm mortgages to the amount of twenty times its stock, so that at the time all Government stock is retired, it will have outstanding \$75,000,000 of such bonds, based on an equal amount of farm mortgages, giving the twelve banks an ultimate capacity for handling mortgages to an amount \$9,000,000,000 — more than double the total present farm mortgages in existence. In fact even this might be somewhat exceeded, since additional mortgages would continue to add 5 per cent. to the stock. Each of the twelve banks will operate independent of the others in adding to its volume of business, and some will therefore retire their Government stock before others do. But the twelve banks are mutual endorsers on all bonds or obligations put out by any of them.

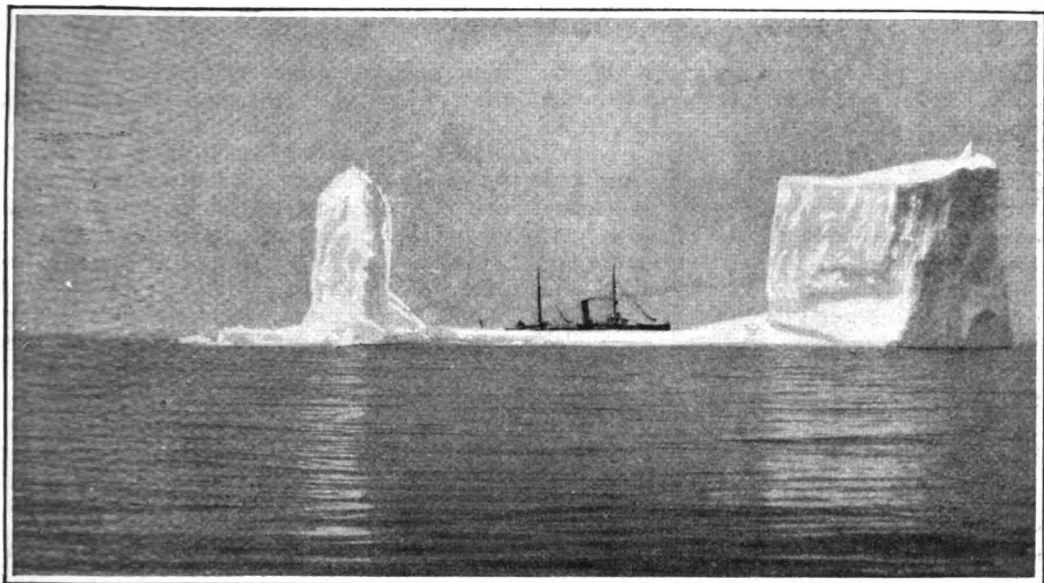
The first loans will be made out of the bank's capital, until \$50,000 or more of first mortgages are accumulated; these will be deposited with the Registrar of the Federal Land Board, and upon approval of the Board, bonds will be issued to the same amount, and offered to investors, by the Federal Land Bank so that funds will be replenished for additional loans.

The maximum interest on mortgages is 6 per cent., but $5\frac{1}{2}$ is predicted.

The interest rate on mortgages must be not to exceed 1 per cent. above the rate on the last issue of bonds sold, hence the market for the bonds will control the rate to the farmers. The 1 per cent margin is to cover overhead expenses of the system, aside from what the Government advances as a subsidy. The Government pays the expenses of the Farm Loan Board, including salaries of the four commissioners (\$10,000 each) and of the registrars and examiners (of titles). The appraisers are to be paid by the Land Banks out of the 1 per cent. margin on the mortgages. The Farm Loan Board is authorized to employ such attorneys, experts, assistants, clerks, laborers, and other employees as it may deem necessary and all expenses of the same will be paid out of the public treasury. All such will be appointed outside the civil service rules, but "nothing herein shall prevent the President from placing said employees in the classified service."

The joint-stock banks will be under the general control of the Federal Land Board, but will have no connection with the twelve Land Banks. They are restricted to 6 per cent. interest on mortgages, and the interest must not exceed 1 per cent. more than the interest they pay on their bonds; no commission or other extra charges are to be allowed. Their minimum capital stock is \$250,000, and they may issue bonds based on farm mortgages to the amount of fifteen times their stock.

In addition to Secretary McAdoo, who is an ex-officio member, the Farm Loan Board, as constituted by President Wilson and confirmed by the Senate, consists of Mr. George W. Norris, of Pennsylvania, designated as Commissioner, or active executive head of the farm-loan system; Judge Charles Lobdell, of Kansas, a lawyer of long experience in the farm-mortgage business; Capt. W. S. A. Smith, of Iowa, and Mr. Herbert Quick, the writer on agricultural topics, formerly editor of *Farm and Fireside* and now a resident of West Virginia.



ICEBERG SIGHTED BY THE "SENECA" ON JUNE 8, 1916. (Lat. 42.35 N., Long. 49.36 W.)

THE INTERNATIONAL ICE PATROL

BY P. T. McGRATH

(President of the Legislative Council of Newfoundland)

AFTER the loss of the giant White Star liner *Titanic*, in April, 1912, by striking an iceberg, there was much discussion in Europe and America as to the possibility of adopting measures to lessen the likelihood of such disasters in future. The idea of operating patrol ships in the area south of the Grand Banks of Newfoundland, where ice is a menace to navigation during the whole year, was advocated and the British Government resolved upon a conference on the subject at London in the autumn of that year, with the owners of the leading British steamship lines. This resulted in a decision to despatch a ship the next spring to cruise in these waters and gain all the information possible in relation to the break-up of the ice, the direction in which it travels, and the feasibility of a patrol service to warn ships traversing this zone of the ice conditions there from day to day.

The results of this expedition were embodied in two official "Blue Books" by the British Government, and formed the basis of the deliberations of an "International Conference for the Saving of Life at Sea," which was held at London and resulted among other things in an undertaking by the

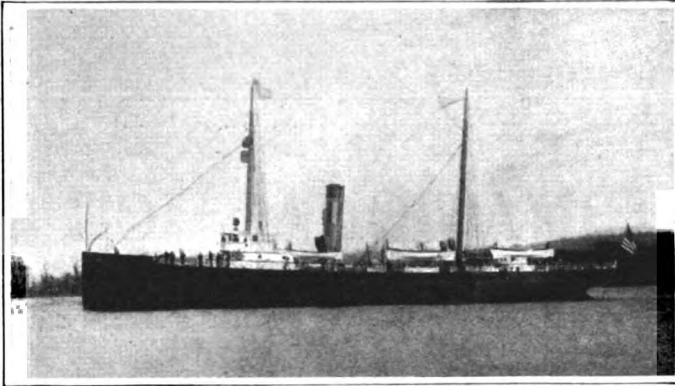
principal marine powers of the world to maintain an ice-patrol on the North Atlantic from February to June in each year. It was agreed that this ice patrol should be carried out by the United States on behalf of the various countries represented, the cost to be borne by them pro rata, Britain to pay 25 per cent. of the total; Germany, France, and United States 15 per cent. each, and Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Italy, Holland, Norway, Russia, and Sweden from 4 to 2 per cent. each.

IGNORANCE CONCERNING ICEBERGS

There are few matters about which such widespread ignorance prevails as about the ice masses with which the North Atlantic, in the region of the Grand Banks, is strewn every spring and summer. The general impression is that this is ice which is formed along the coast of Newfoundland and Labrador and is released every spring, but, in truth, the origin of the icebergs and icefloes is entirely different. Icebergs are huge masses of glaciers formed in the vast Arctic continent of Greenland.

The glaciers slowly but irresistibly press seaward through the Greenland valleys into

the ocean, where, when the weight of the outer portion, once it is unsupported by the land, becomes too great, it breaks off from the parent mass, a process called "calving." The calving portion becomes an iceberg, and sometimes these are of enormous size—many miles in extent indeed, and often so vast that they ground on the shoals in the region, until, by the play of the winds, the seas, the currents, and the sun, they become top heavy and tumble over again to break apart into smaller fragments which are ferried southward on the bosom of the Polar current and which ultimately reach the avenues of ocean travel. These flocs can only make their



THE "SENECA," ONE OF THE UNITED STATES ICE PATROL SHIPS

escape from the Arctic waters during the brief three summer months.

It takes these ice-masses six or eight months to voyage over the two thousand miles separating Melville Bay, in West Greenland, from the Grand Banks, and the larger bergs, which often ground along Labrador, are even longer on the way.

THE DEADLIEST MENACE TO SHIPS

These flocs, and the bergs which are often amongst them, but which are increased later in the season by a vastly larger number of bergs that sail along in solitary grandeur after having had their progress retarded by grounding on shoals or points of land as they came southward, disperse themselves over the Grand Banks and become the very worst sort of menace to ocean shipping. It would be possible to occupy the whole of the space devoted to this article in merely summarizing the cases of ocean steamers which during the past fifty years have met disaster through collision with icebergs in the waters off Newfoundland. All other records in this regard, however, were completely overshadowed by the appalling disaster to the *Titanic*.

This mighty master creation, the greatest the world has ever seen, was eliminated in the brief space of a few hours, through the mistaken idea of some of those in authority on board, that she was so staunchly built that she could defy all agencies of nature and race with impunity through ice-laden seas.

As the summer advances and the sun becomes more powerful, the bergs melt into smaller fragments or upset and break into pieces on the shoal ground of the Grand Banks, being then swept into the Gulf Stream, where they lie in the way of the steamers plying east and west and cause the shipping casualties so frequent during these months. Still mightier bergs, however, ground along the coast of Newfoundland in the spring and summer, and move southward in the fall.

Admittedly the worst danger menacing transatlantic travelers in modern days, with steamers of such speed as are plying on the Atlantic, is that of collision with an iceberg in a dense fog. It is morally certain that the mysterious disappearance of big steamers like the *Naronic* and the *Huronian* in more recent years, and of many others previously, is attributable to this cause, for no other agency is usually powerful enough to work the ruin of a modern liner with her cellular bottom and water-tight bulkheads.

Most probably, some ships that vanish are sent to bottom by the overturning of bergs from the impact of collision. The corrosive action of salt water on the submerged mass, with the play of the sun on the exposed portion, often produces such a delicately balanced berg that the touch of a man's hand will upset it. Often Newfoundland fishermen cutting fragments from bergs to pack round their bait or catch of fish are destroyed by the huge masses rolling right over, sending men and boats to the bottom in a miniature maelstrom.

Imagine then the result when a powerful ocean steamer, travelling at the rate of twenty to twenty-five knots an hour, hurls her vast bulk against a rampart of ice which suddenly looms up through the fog right across the route she must go. It is too late to stop her, no change of helm will bring her clear; those on board can only pray that the berg will stand firm against the shock.

If so, the ship may escape with a battered bow, but if the berg upsets, it is easy to understand the appalling consequences of a thousand tons of weight falling on a ship or smashing in her underbody as it swings up beneath her.

PATROLLING THE ICE-FIELDS

The American authorities inaugurated this patrol service with the naval scout cruisers *Birmingham* and *Chester*, but later assigned the revenue cutters *Seneca* and *Miami* to this duty, which ships have since continued it. The first season St. John's was chosen for the work, but ultimately it was found more convenient to utilize Halifax, Nova Scotia, because the area patrolled was south of St. John's and extended farther south as the season advanced and the armadas of ice-bergs became more numerous. Each cutter patrols the ice region for fifteen days. It is a three-day run from Halifax to the ice zone, with a return voyage of about the same duration. The ships arrange their movements by wireless communication, so that the service is absolutely continuous.

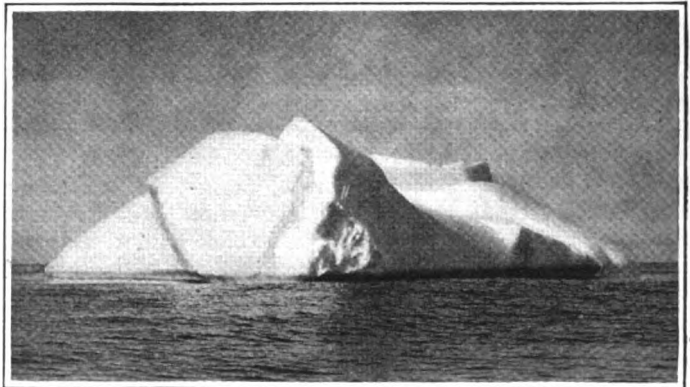
In the performance of this work account has to be taken of the fact that the many steamers plying over the St. Lawrence route between Quebec and Montreal on this side of the Atlantic and various European ports have to make a northern cut so as to round Cape Race, and are, therefore, exposed to greater danger than those plying to American ports, which can deviate farther south, and hence the patrol service is pushed as far northward as conditions will admit, so as to ensure adequate warning of these ships as well as those on the southern lane. Daily bulletins of the flocs and bergs seen and of the trend of the fog-infested areas are furnished by wireless to the hydrographic offices in the capitals of the countries contributing to the upkeep of this service, and warnings are also sent by wireless telegraph to all steamers plying in the berg-strewn sections.

The ship lanes across the Atlantic pass just south of the tail of the Grand Bank, the westward seaway being somewhat north of the eastward, so as to lessen the risks from collisions; and it is for a distance of about 100 miles on either side of these tracks that

the greatest danger exists. In this danger zone the patrol boat seeks for the large bergs and flocs and logs the positions of these "white squadrons," and the direction of their drift, giving the exact location of the southernmost ice, so that shipping can change from the normal route, if necessary, in order to avoid it.

In the report of the *Scotia*, which went very exhaustively into the question of currents, great stress is laid upon the part these ocean rivers play in the elimination of the bergs. The Labrador current carries these south until it meets the Gulf Stream flowing northward from the Mexican seaboard and stronger than the cold water areas moving from the north; so that in commingling on the Grand Banks, thermal conditions are created which cause the vast fogs for which that region is noted. The heat of the sun and the increasing warmth of the water melt the ice, eating away the masses below the water, which are, roughly, six-sevenths of the total bulk of the berg, until as these become top heavy, they overturn, break into smaller fragments, and thus accelerate the process of their own destruction.

On rare occasions, however, bergs are so large and have such equipoise that they drift south almost to the latitude of the Delaware



AN ICEBERG WITH UNDER-SIDE CORRODED BY THE SALT WATER

caples, while at other times enormous masses from the bays of Labrador and Newfoundland, the fruit of exceptionally severe winters, are carried far below the Banks, and ocean steamers bound for Boston and New York are compelled to change their direction and go from 60 to 100 miles south of their usual course in order to avoid them.

Each season the patrol ships are adding to the stock of knowledge regarding the ice area, and the results of their investigations are published in the official records; but, as

is too often the case, the world gets to know very little of them. Among some of the conclusions reached is that under ordinary conditions it is possible to see an iceberg 12 to 15 miles from the ship's bridge, about an extra mile from the crow's nest, and still another mile from the signal yard on the foremast. In especially clear weather bergs may be seen from 18 to 20 miles; but on a cloudy day, with good visibility, a deduction of about two miles must be made. With the searchlight it is possible to see an iceberg about two miles on a dimly moonlit night and about three miles when the moon sets.

Another weighty fact for mariners is that it is possible for lookouts on very large ships to be higher than the top of a small berg, so that on a dark night these observers would have an unbroken view of the horizon over the top of a "growler," or low-lying berg, half a mile or a mile away, and thus easily miss seeing the obstruction until too late to avoid it.

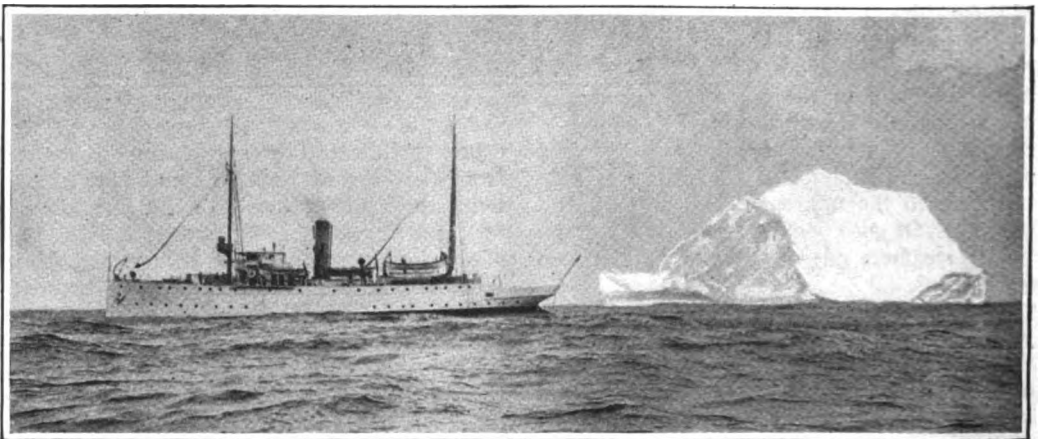
A PROBLEM STILL UNSOLVED

A theory exploded by the ice patrol ships is that the proximity of ice is marked by a notable lowering of air temperature. Experiments covering three years have proved that such is not the case and that, as a rule, there is little or no change in the temperature of the air near an iceberg. Equally fallacious is the idea that the presence of a berg is denoted by a lowering in the temperature of the water. As a matter of fact, the very contrary is the case. This was first proved by Professor Howard Barnes, of McGill University, Montreal, who, beginning with experiments in the St. Lawrence River, designed to determine the ice conditions there in the early spring, extended his

investigations into this problem in the Western Atlantic and made voyages to Hudson Bay and across the ocean on ships fitted with an apparatus devised by himself, with this object in view. He demonstrated that in reality the surface water in the vicinity of an iceberg increases in warmth, a conclusion formed by the observers on the *Scotia* and also by those on the patrol ships.

Other theories, as that echoes indicate the presence of bergs, that ice discloses itself through what is known as the "ice blink," and that submarine "ears" on ships will reveal the nearness of ice by its peculiar motion through the waves, have been proved equally unfounded. In truth the testimony of the commanders of these patrol ships is that the only safe way to navigate regions of icebergs is to stop during thick weather and to run very slowly on dark nights.

The outstanding fact, therefore, with regard to this ice patrol service is that it is markedly effective in lessening the danger to ships traversing the ice-zone by the warnings which it sends out from day to day, which enable passing vessels to give a wide berth to these obstructions. But the problem of detecting ice in the immediate vicinity of a steamer has not yet been satisfactorily solved, though Professor Barnes is actively pursuing his investigations in that direction. His experiments, it is hoped, will ultimately result in the devising of an instrument which will reveal the close presence of ice through the readings it will give of the water temperatures in the vicinity of bergs and flocs, so that the combination of warmth in the surface temperature, cold farther down and still greater cold at a lower depth, will represent a warning that no prudent shipmaster will disregard.



AN ICEBERG GROUNDED IN 41 FATHOMS IN LATITUDE 43, LONGITUDE 50. THE "MIAMI" ON LEFT



"A FARM HOME SCENE IN ICELAND THIRTY YEARS AGO"

(Presented in The Little Country Theatre, in Fargo, North Dakota, by young men and women of Icelandic descent who reside in that State)

DRAMA FOR RURAL COMMUNITIES

BY ALFRED G. ARVOLD

THE United States Department of Agriculture recently sent out hundreds of letters to farmers' wives asking them what would make life on the farm more attractive. Hundreds of the replies, which were received from practically every section, told the story of social starvation. They wanted some place to go. They wanted to be entertained. Moral degeneracy in the country, like the city, is usually due to lack of proper social recreation. When people have something healthful with which to occupy their minds they rarely think of wrongdoing.

The impulse of building up a community spirit in a rural neighborhood may come from without, but the real work of socialization must come from within. The country people themselves must work out their own civilization.

With a knowledge of these basic facts in mind the idea of the Little Country Theater was conceived. The theater became a reality when a dingy old chapel on the second floor of the administration building at the North Dakota Agricultural College, located at Fargo, was remodeled into what is now known as the Little Country Theater. It is simply a large playhouse placed under a reducing-glass, and is just the size of the

average country town hall. The decorations are plain and simple, the color scheme being a green and gold.

Simplicity is the keynote of the theater, for it was not meant for the institution alone, but for every rural community in North Dakota and the rest of America as well. It is an example of what can be done with hundreds of village halls, unused portions of school-houses, and garrets and basements of country homes and country churches.

The object of the Little Country Theater movement is to produce such plays and community programs as can be easily staged in just such places, or, in fact, in any place where people assemble for social betterment. Its principal function is to stimulate an interest for good, clean drama and original entertainment among the people living in the open country and villages, in order to help them find themselves and become better satisfied with the community in which they live. In other words, its real purpose is to use the drama, and all that goes with the drama, as a sociological force in getting people together and acquainted with each other, so that they may find out the hidden life forces of nature itself. Instead of making the drama a luxury for the classes, its aim is to make it



A SCENE FROM "A RUSSIAN HONEYMOON"

an instrument for the enlightenment and enjoyment of the masses.

The work of The Little Country Theater has more than justified its existence. It has produced scores of plays and community programs. The people who have participated in them seem to have caught the spirit. One group of young people from various sections of the State represented five different nationalities—Scotch, Irish, English, Norwegian, and Swedish—successfully staging "The Fatal Message," a one-act comedy by John Kendrick Bangs. In order to depict Russian life, one of the dramatic clubs in the institution gave "A Russian Honeymoon." Another cast of characters from the country presented "Cherry Tree Farm," an English comedy, in a most acceptable manner. "Leonarda," a play by Björnsterne Björnson, was presented by the Edwin Booth Dramatic Club and was undoubtedly one of the best plays ever staged in The Little Country Theater. An orchestra played Norwegian music between the acts.

An illustration to demonstrate that a home-talent play is a dynamic force in helping people to find themselves is afforded in the presentation of "The Country Life Minstrels," by the Agricultural Club, an organization of young men coming entirely from country districts. The story reads like a romance. The club decided to give a minstrel show. At the first rehearsal, nobody exhibited any talent except one young man. He could clog. At the second rehearsal a tenor and a mandolin player were discovered; at the third, several good voices were found; whereupon a quartet and a twelve-piece band were organized. When the play was presented, twenty-eight young men furnished an excellent entertainment.

During the last three years nearly twenty young ladies, the majority from country districts, have presented short plays. Each of them has also acted as the director of a play. They have not only selected the production, but they have promoted the play and trained the cast of characters as well. When Percy MacKaye, the well-known dramatist, visited the Little Country Theater, four young men presented "Sam Average." "The Travelling Man," a miracle play, was presented

in honor of Lady Gregory, of Ireland, on her last tour of America. Many other standard plays have also been presented by these rural amateurs as well as a number of original productions.

Several original plays have been presented to large crowds. Three of these, "For the Cause," "A New Liberator," and "Bridging the Chasm," made an unusually fine impression upon the audiences. They were written under the direction of Abbie Simmons, writer of plays and a splendid student of the drama.

Perhaps the most interesting incidents which have occurred in connection with the work of The Little Country Theater were the presentation of "A Farm Home Scene in Iceland Thirty Years Ago," "The Prairie Wolf," "Back to the Farm," and "A Bee in a Drone's Hive." All of these productions have come out of the country people themselves. Standing-room was at a premium. The Little Country Theater could not hold the crowds, eighty per cent. of the people being farmers who were eager to see the drama of their creation.

"A Farm Home Scene in Iceland Thirty Years Ago" was staged by twenty young men and women of Icelandic descent whose homes are in the country districts of North Dakota. The tableau was very effective. The scene represented an interior sitting-room of an Icelandic home. The walls were white-washed; in the rear of the room was a fireplace; the old grandfather was seated in an arm-chair near the fireplace reading a story in the Icelandic language. About the room were several young ladies dressed in native costumes, busily engaged in spinning yarn and knitting, a favorite pastime of an Icelandic home. On a chair at the right was a

young man with a violin playing selections from an Icelandic composer. Through the small window rays of light were thrown, representing the Midnight Sun and the Northern Lights. Just before the curtain fell, twenty young people, all Icelanders, joined in singing their national song, which has the same tune as "America." The effect of the tableau was far-reaching. The two hundred people who saw it will never forget it.

"The Prairie Wolf," a play written by a young man named John Lange, was staged in The Little Country Theater before an audience representing more than thirty rural communities in the State. The play was not only written by a young farmer, but it was staged and rehearsed by country people. It was a tremendous success. Dozens of communities in the State have already asked for permission to present it. The action throughout the play was superb.

"Back to the Farm," written by a student of the Minnesota Agricultural College, was presented on three successive nights during the Tri-State Grain-Growers Convention, which is held every year in the city of Fargo. Seven hundred and fifty persons, 90 per cent. of them country people, witnessed this production. Hundreds were turned away from the theater. The cast of characters in the play was made up entirely of young people from the country.

Last fall, Cecil Baker, a young farmer from Edmunds, N. D., who has caught the social vision of the soil, came to my office with a manuscript of a play which he had written entitled "A Bee in a Drone's Hive, or A Farmer in the City." Mr. Baker wanted his friends to present it, and they did. Two hundred and fifty people saw the production. Some said it was the greatest argument in favor of country life that had ever been presented. Others were astounded at the naturalness of the make-up and the costuming of the characters. Everybody was more than satisfied.

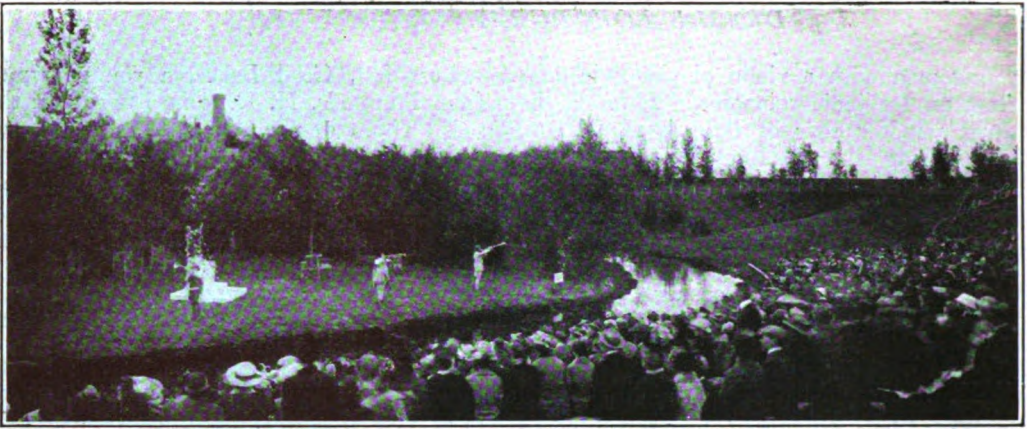
The influence of The Little Country Theater in the State as well as the nation has been far-reaching. Scarcely a day passes but somebody writes asking for data in regard to it, or for copies of plays, and matter for presentation on public programs. These letters tell an intensely interesting story of the social condition of the community. During the past few years in North Dakota, hundreds of people young and old have participated in home-talent productions and community programs. Thousands of pieces of play-matter and pamphlets have been loaned to individuals, literary societies, farmers' clubs, civic clubs, and other organizations.

While The Little Country Theater is located in North Dakota, it nevertheless stands ready to assist other communities in every way possible to develop community life.



A SCENE FROM "THE VILLAGE POST-OFFICE"

(This play was presented by a group of students representing various country districts in the State of North Dakota)



THE BANKSIDE THEATER ON THE CAMPUS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH DAKOTA, AT GRAND FORKS
(The heralds announcing the Shakespeare Tercentenary Masque, "Shakespeare, the Playmaker")

COMMUNAL PLAY-MAKING



PROF. F. H. KOCH

(Under whose direction the Masque, "Shakespeare, the Playmaker," was written and staged)

ANOTHER institution of North Dakota—the State university at Grand Forks—has made distinct contributions to the communal drama. The achievements of the University along this line are notable not only for the manner of their production, and their quality, but for the unusually attractive scene of the performances. The Bankside Theater, as it is appropriately named, is an open-air stage

and auditorium, located on the two sides of a little stream that flows in graceful curves through the University grounds. A beautiful natural bend of the water course rounds out the front of the stage, and on the opposite bank is the amphitheater, whose gentle slope accommodates an audience of three thousand. The stage is fully a hundred feet long by forty deep. The stream is eighteen feet wide at this point, and is not only a most picturesque feature, with its beautiful reflections both in daylight and at night, but contributes effective acoustic properties. Expert advice from some of the highest exponents of the dramatic art has been utilized in

planning for the further enrichment of this natural theater. Trees and shrubs for a stage screen, and a colonnade of Greek columns on the crest of the bankside, will in due time further add to its delightful charm.

Here in this attractive outdoor theater the Shakespeare centenary was celebrated last June by the production of "Shakespeare, the Playmaker," a communal masque wholly designed and written by a group of twenty students of the University of North Dakota. The idea of the work, original in its concep-



"CALIBAN," "PROSPERO" AND "MIRANDA"
(Benjamin F. Sherman, B. Melvin Johnson, and Harriet Mills)

tion, aimed to portray the beginnings of Shakespeare's art—suggested by the players' scenes in "A Midsummer Night's Dream"—and his mature achievements, with his vision of the new world of America as embodied in "The Tempest."

Notable in its presentation and other aspects, the most unique feature of the masque was its communal authorship. It was on this same plan that "The Pageant of the Northwest" was created here two years ago. That production superbly interpreted the history of our own country in a manner that impressed the thousands who participated as actors and spectators with the spirit of nationality and coöperation. The masque of "Shakespeare the Playmaker," produced by many minds and hands, under the inspiring leadership of Professor Koch, and uniting in a bond of sympathy a score of writers, hundreds of actors, and thousands of auditors, was a notable example of community effort. In keeping with the aim of this earnest group of workers, the masque dealt with the gradual evolution into permanent dramatic expression of the spirit and life of the people, and linked up felicitously with our own land the genius of the master playwright.

Emanating from different pens, the production was enriched with varying viewpoints, yet possessed artistic unity and vibrated with an expression



THE CHIPPEWA INDIANS RECOGNIZING THE PAINTING OF THE INDIAN MONSTER, "PIASA," IN "SHAKESPEARE, THE PLAYMAKER"



"ARIEL" (AGNES O'CONNOR)

of native poetry strong in dramatic color and tones. This democracy of composition—in the words of Professor Koch—"marks another contribution to the new pageantry of the people and suggests a still further development of coöperative authorship in making community drama." The people have often participated impressively as actors in a community play; but in these North Dakota productions it has been shown that they can also, by collaborating under proper leadership, "create a drama democratic—a new art interpretation of life.



QUEEN ELIZABETH AT GREENWICH CASTLE, 1588
(In "Shakespeare, the Playmaker," as given at the University of North Dakota)

THE MAN WHO COMES OUT

BY O. F. LEWIS

(General Secretary, Prison Association of New York)

BETWEEN the man in the trenches "somewhere in France" and the man in a Sing Sing cell there seems at first little connection. However, the European war has made business excellent in our country. And the munitions factories are eagerly taking ex-prisoners on, in company with other employees by the thousands. Right there is the connection.

A year ago hardly anyone seemed to want to give the released prisoner a job. A year followed of Mr. Osborne and good times, and the great change has come. To-day, the special employment secretary of the Prison Association of New York says he is able to refute the statement frequently made that discharged prisoners are returning to crime because nobody will hire them. In July, 1916, he reported that every able-bodied man that applied during the month of June, and was willing to work and take what was found for him, was placed within a few days. Wages ran from \$9 to \$20 a week.

One ex-prisoner writes that he is getting \$18 a week as bookkeeper and general clerk, and is going to repay the expenses "defrayed in his behalf." Another of the gray brotherhood says that he has "suffered" an increase in salary, and that he is not "kicking about the Saturday afternoon holiday that has been dispensed with."

Good will toward the released prisoner is spreading. Hundreds of New York merchants were asked last winter to give employment to men just out of prison. A manufacturer, having taken five men, telephoned into the office, saying that the men were doing so well that he wondered if they had not given false statements as to having had a prison record for the purpose of securing positions.

The surge in the prisoner's behalf is not confined to any one State. Henry Ford has at least 600 released prisoners in his works at Detroit. Miss Katharine B. Davis, chairman of the parole commission of New York City, has been organizing the relief societies of the city into a coöperative agency for finding employment for men and women coming

out of the city prisons. The men at Sing Sing and Auburn Prisons are establishing branches of the Mutual Welfare League outside the prisons. In another State a new relief society has been organized by a man formerly in prison. In Kansas the prisoners are planning a coöperative bureau. Many other instances might be cited.

Yet, for all this, the problem is anything but easy. Social movements resemble in some ways the swinging of the pendulum. Not a few of the ardent employers will be disillusioned. Some are already sad. Listen to one who went to much trouble to help:

I had a talk with X—, turned him over to our foreman, who explained to him that we would be very glad to start him as a porter for two or three weeks at \$9 a week. At the end of the time, if he showed himself interested and efficient, we would make him a second machine-hand, or a man in back of the machine, which pays \$12 a week, at which place we would keep him for two or three weeks. At the end of the time, we would advance him to machine-hand, which pays from \$15 up, depending upon the machine. Our foreman understood that X— would report for work the following morning, but that is the last we have ever seen of him.

Another employer writes: "I offered this man employment at \$1.75 a day, agreeing to advance him as he showed ability in the line of work that was assigned to him. Very much to my surprise, he did not put in an appearance the next day."

A man just down from State prison secured a job with a corporation employing thousands, giving false references. He was employed pending the verification of his references. Needing cash relief to tide him over, he went to the Prison Association, where he stated that he would surely be discharged when his references were found to be "phoney." The writer agreed to intercede for him with the vice-president of the company. The young man should return on Monday. The vice-president was seen on schedule, but the ex-prisoner did not return. Two days later he brought word that he had been "fired because his references were found crooked." Asked why he had not re-

turned on Monday, he had no excuse to offer save indifference.

THE HANDICAPS OF PRISONERS

Governor Whitman has recommended the establishment by the State of New York of an employment bureau for men and women coming out of prison. Such a bureau would be only a partial solution. The task is complicated not only by the past records of the bureau's clients, but also by the complete unwillingness, still, of most employers to take a released prisoner. Furthermore, a considerable number of ex-prisoners are incompetent, handicapped, or otherwise incapacitated. When entering prison, many of them were economic or social wrecks. Prison debilitates and destroys many a man. Unlike a hospital, which keeps a person until at least convalescent, the prison discharges its inmates when their time is up, whether or no.

Exactly one-half of the ex-prisoners coming to the Prison Association's employment secretary from October to December, 1915, inclusive, "were suffering from handicaps or diseases so serious as to prevent them from earning a living save under the most favorable conditions. Drunkards, the mentally defective, the senile, the drug fiends, all add to the problem. If all released prisoners were able-bodied, the problem would be wonderfully lightened.

THE REAL PROBLEM

A half-million persons, 90 per cent. of whom are men, are each year committed to correctional institutions in our country. Few die in prison. "What goes into jail must come out." If it comes out untrained, unfit, incompetent, how much can the employment bureaus or other relief efforts contribute toward the permanent merging of this group with the outside world?

One out of every two hundred or two hundred and fifty persons in the United States gets into jail each year. This takes no account of those other throngs, who, arraigned at court, receive acquittal, discharge, suspended sentence, or probation. Of those going to correctional institutions, the great bulk are committed for but a few days or weeks. Of 468,000 persons discharged from prisons or jails in 1910, only 25,000 came out of State prisons or State reformatories. In other words, only about 6 per cent. of all those coming out came from the "higher institutions of crime."

At present little governmental or philan-

thropic machinery exists to refit the jail inmate within the institution, or to find him employment afterwards. Here is a huge problem for the future.

First attention should be given, in plans for betterment on a broad scale, to the 25,000 men or more, who, just from State prisons or reformatories, furnish the acute stage of the problem. They have been the worst criminals, generally; many of the most serious crimes can be attributed to them; a large proportion of the country's crime is due to their continued anti-social careers. Can this army of dangerous social elements be assimilated, be made honest and industrious? A man is not honest and a criminal at the same time. *Much of our crime will disappear if the man coming out of prison can be made to stay honest.*

LIGHT ON THE SOLUTION

The answer is very encouraging. Plainly put, if manufacturers and other employers, on the one side, and prisons and prisoners, on the other, will coöperate practically, the problem can eventually be largely solved. Statistics are illuminating on this point.

Over 30,000,000 males ten years or over were employed in this country in 1910. Only 25,000 male prisoners came out of the State prisons and reformatories in that year. In 1910 there were 268,491 manufacturing establishments in our country. If one such establishment in every ten had assimilated one State prisoner in that year, the total task of assimilation would have been accomplished, providing the prisoner made good.

In those 268,491 establishments there were 5,163,164 male wage-earners of sixteen years of age or over. What are 25,000 men among five and a half million? Less than one-half of one per cent. Furthermore, there were employed in agriculture, forestry, and animal husbandry in 1910 nearly eleven million other males. The number of prisoners above mentioned would have been but one-fourth of one per cent. of this number of workers. Transportation claimed two and a half million more workers. Trade employed three million others. Clerical occupations required a million more. And only 25,000 men from prison to be assimilated.

This huge country can perfectly well, therefore, digest its own army of reformed "major" criminals, whenever that reform occurs on an economic basis. This would require organization. The start must come either through the powerful stimulus of some great corporation, or through the en-

thusiastic but sane agitation of some philanthropist, who has caught the vision, that all over the country a remarkable reduction in crime can be secured, and an appalling amount of misery alleviated or eliminated, by organizing the relief and employment of ex-prisoners along such lines.

SOMETHING ALREADY DONE

Remarkable starts have already been made. Think of the Ford Company, with already 600 or more released prisoners at work! The United States Penitentiary paper, at Leavenworth, Kansas, publishes a so-called honor-roll of corporations employing ex-prisoners. Yet only a few of the many similar corporations are thus listed:

The Standard Oil Company of New York; The Pullman Company, Chicago; The American Car and Foundry Company, West Virginia; The Kelly Axe Manufacturing Company, Charleston; The Consolidated Coal Company, West Virginia; The Pulaski Iron Company; four of the big Trunk Line Railroads; The New River and Consolidated Coal Company, West Virginia; The Red Jacket Consolidated Coal and Coke Company; The Hazel Atlas Glass Company; The Chalmers Motor Company, Michigan.

How long would it take the great manufacturing plants of this country to assimilate our entire output of ex-prisoners, if they once determine to try to? How simple the problem, when it resolves itself according to States! California's output from Folsom and San Quentin prisons in 1910 was only 887. Colorado returned to society in 1910 from Canyon City and Buena Vista only 550 prisoners. Connecticut returned from Wethersfield only 163; Idaho only 75. Even New York, which sends out yearly the largest number of any State, released from prisons and reformatories in 1910 only 3019 men. *It is not the numbers that come out of prisons that is society's peril; it is their continued adherence to crime.*

WHAT IS REQUIRED OF THE MAN OUT OF PRISON?

Now, what are the obligations of the released prisoner and the prison itself in such a comprehensive arrangement? The released prisoner must offer himself to the prospective employer as a commercial proposition. The employer must need the man, and the man must need the job. The man coming out must be willing to take any reasonable job that he can find. He must expect to begin at the bottom. If he doesn't have to, he will be especially lucky.

The released prisoner must have health

to sell, as well as labor. He must not come out of prison broken down in body or mind. He must come out reasonably healthy-minded, not only in morals but in his attitude toward society. Occupations of the most varied sorts will open up to him. Just as he, before going to prison, came from all sorts of occupations, so he will be placed not in any particular occupation or trade. In the last three months of 1915, of 67 men placed by the employment secretary of the Prison Association, 27 went into trades that might be called skilled, and 35 into unskilled occupations. The 67 men entered 31 different occupations, including those of dishwasher, bellboy, bookkeeper, butcher, cutter, driver, freight handler, iron worker, kitchen man, laborer, machinist, packer, painter, plumber, presser, munitions maker, chauffeur, janitor, salesman, stenographer, and watchman.

FAULTS OF THE OLD PRISON SYSTEM

The prison must turn out its human product fit to fight for an honest living. The old prison system, with its deadly monotony, its long daily cellular confinement, its government of inmates by masses and by numbers, its barbarous cruelties, and its generally depressing effect upon its inmates, turned back into society an army of sullen, revengeful, anti-social creatures, justified in considerable measure for their enmity toward society. Such prisons have not ceased to be. As I write these words, reports come to me of a county penitentiary in my own State where men in stripes have been forced to *wear heavy chains riveted to their bodies for months*, as punishment and a preventive against escape, in an institution where the officials, in charge announced to an investigating committee that the institution was not one for reformation but for the safe-keeping of inmates.

THE NEW KIND OF PRISON

The old prison system sought to convert to right-living through terrorism and cruelty. The newer prison system, the kind of prison that Tynan of Colorado, Gilmour of Guelph (Ontario), and Homer and Osborne of New York have been developing, is an enormous and radical advance, with its honor systems, its self-government, its fair play, toward the just and constructive treatment of the individual inmate—a long step forward toward turning him out ready and able to earn his bread by the sweat of his brow. That these systems run a danger, in

that a certain proportion of this human product may acquire a highly exaggerated idea of their own importance to the world, is annoying, but not of great significance just now. This curious development of the "exaggerated ego" may, after all, be but a by-product of a day when public opinion is fastened upon the "man inside" with an enthusiasm that sometimes becomes embarrassing to constructive prison reform.

Even the older prisons under new masters are able to develop more nearly normal men. The personality of the man at the head of the prison is the chief secret of success or failure in running a prison. And so, today, wise wardens fight vice by open-air treatment and recreations, instead of by club and whip and paddle. The disease-ridden cells are now offset, so far as possible, by decreased time within those cells on the part of the inmates. Goals in life are being put before prisoners through classes, and by judiciously chosen and stimulating entertainments. Interest in the welfare of prisoners is being encouraged "on the outside."

INDETERMINATE SENTENCE AND PAROLE

Two great incentives, rendering prisoners more fit for freedom, have found a foothold in prison administration—the indeterminate sentence, and parole. Under the indeterminate sentence, a parole board is likely to release on parole the well-behaved, industrious inmate months and even years before the release of the man that is neither industrious nor good.

The indeterminate sentence would be of little value without parole. The man on parole is out of prison, and yet not free from it. Parole is an outgrowth of the English system of ticket-of-leave. The paroled man is trusted outside the walls, with limited freedom. A parole officer supervises his conduct. For a period, varying with different parole boards, the released prisoner remains on parole, perhaps for six months, perhaps for a year or more. For violation of the rules of parole, the prisoner on parole may be returned to prison.

It is generally felt by prison officials that about every three out of every four inmates released on parole "make good," or in other words, finish their parole period satisfactorily, and receive their absolute release from prison. Examples of success can be cited

from almost every State of the Union. Indiana may be taken as a typical State.

Between April 1, 1897, and September 20, 1915, a period of approximately 18½ years, 9074 persons were paroled from the State prison and reformatory of Indiana.

Of 5547 men paroled from the reformatory, 286 are still reporting (latest report of State Board of Charities), and 1463 are delinquent; 73.63 per cent. have made good.

From the State prison 3527 men were paroled, of whom 225 were reporting on September 20, 1915. The delinquents numbered 970, and 73.36 per cent. of those paroled have made good or are doing so.

The parole law did not apply to the Women's Prison until 1890. Since then, 264 women have been paroled, 18 of whom are still reporting. Seventy-five are delinquent, and the percentage who have made good is 71.59.

Before the parole law went into effect, more than 40 per cent. of all persons discharged from prison returned sooner or later, and consequently the percentage making good was less than 60.

The prisoners on parole during the 18½ years earned while on parole \$2,260,628.77, besides receiving in some instances board and lodging. Their expenses were \$2,143,423.41, leaving savings amounting to \$117,205.36, or an average of \$51.10 each.

Furthermore, the parole system is a most efficient first-aid to released prisoners, in that in most instances a *bona fide* promise of a job is required before the inmate may be released on parole. It excites wonder always to find how large a proportion of the jobs thus secured by friends on the outside turn out to be satisfactory.

All in all, the chances of the men coming out are far from desperate, particularly in these good times. The way to a far larger system of rehabilitating the released prisoner is pretty clear.

Employers, prisoners, and prison must work together to fit the prisoner for his chance, and to give him that chance. Society must assimilate the 25,000 or more of the "major criminals" annually. A small number of prisoners' aid societies are already active. A large number of individuals are also helping. The time is ripe for a nation-wide movement to deal with a nation-wide problem. The mass of lesser offenders, totalling not far from a half-million, must receive attention.

Society's task is by no means hopeless, but it is, and will be, very hard. Nevertheless, for its own protection, if not for the sake of human brotherhood, society must undertake the burden.

THE MINOR PARTIES

THEIR CANDIDATES AND PLATFORMS

THE customary assertion of leaders in each of the minor parties—that it will poll vastly more votes in the coming Presidential election than ever before—seems more than usually confident in tone and convincing in logic and argument. Socialists, Prohibitionists, and Socialist Laborites are making bids, in party platforms and from the stump, for those of the four million Progressives who may not care to vote for either Mr. Hughes or Mr. Wilson. Discontented Republicans and Democrats will also be welcomed, and pacifists have no place else to go.

In 1912, the three minor parties polled 1,139,060 votes. The Socialist candidate received 901,873, the Prohibitionist 207,928, and the Socialist Labor nominee 29,259. Republican and Democratic arguments during Presidential campaigns monopolize so much of neighborly conversation and newspaper space that it is difficult to believe that one voter out of every thirteen ignores the major parties and registers his belief in principles which those parties reject. In some States the proportion is larger; in California, one voter in six is a Socialist or a Prohibitionist.

THE SOCIALIST CANDIDATE

The most popular of the three minor political organizations is also the youngest. Formed in 1900 as an offshoot of the Socialist Labor group, the Socialist Party is now in its fifth national campaign; and it is the only party that has grown in strength with each quadrennial appeal to the people. Mr. Eugene V. Debs, its nominee in the four previous campaigns, this year will seek election to Congress from Indiana.

The Socialist nominee for the Presidency is Mr. Allan L. Benson, of Yonkers, N. Y. He was chosen by direct vote of the dues-paying members of the party, receiving a majority of the 32,400 votes cast.

Mr. Benson is well known as a writer of books and magazine articles on economic and political subjects. He was born in Michigan forty-four years ago, and was educated in the public schools. After serving as newspaper reporter, he was made editor of the *Detroit Times* when only thirty years old, afterwards being editor of the *Washington Times*. Recent years have been devoted entirely to magazine and book writing. He is author of "Socialism Made Plain," "The Truth About Socialism," "The Usurped Power of the Courts," "A Way to Prevent War," "Inviting War to America," "Our Dishonest Constitution," and many Socialist pamphlets, some of which have had a circulation of a million copies.

Encouraged by the result in 1912—when

its best previous vote was more than doubled—the Socialists will this year conduct the most extensive campaign in their history. Mr. Benson will tour the Northern States. His running-mate, Mr. George R. Kirkpatrick, of

Newark, N. J., will campaign in the South.

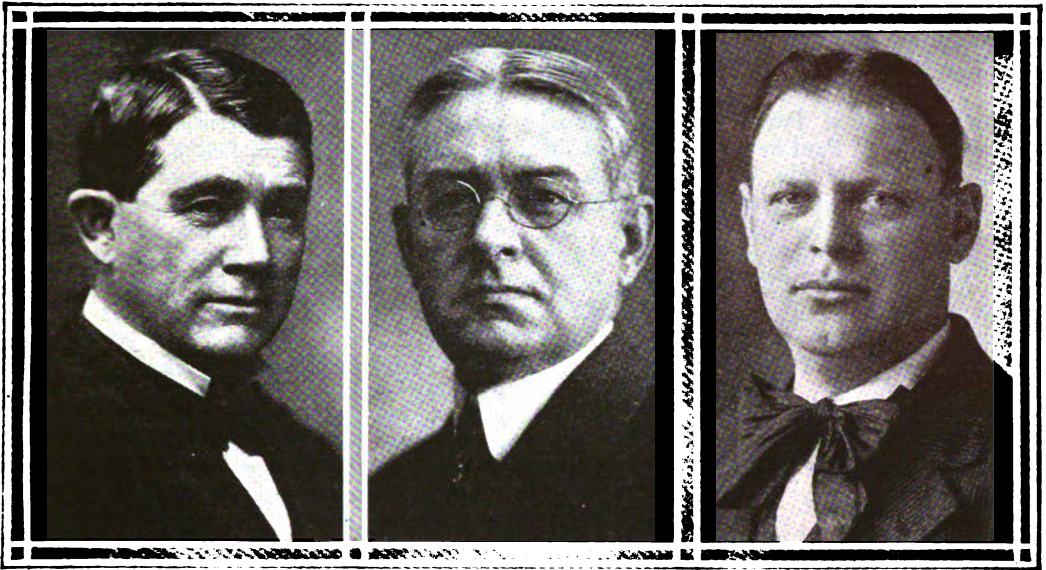
Mr. Benson, the Presidential nominee, believes in national defense by mines and submarines chiefly. He severely criticized the "inflammatory" utterances of President Wilson on his Western tour early in the year—charging insincerity, "words which have not squared with acts," and a conversion to preparedness merely as a political expedient. Mr. Benson favored the Pershing expedition to punish Villa, but declares that the troops should long ago have been withdrawn and used as police protection along the border.

THE PLATFORM OF THE SOCIALIST PARTY

As submitted by the National Executive Committee, the Socialist platform contains many new planks relating to war and preparedness, but declares the major issue still to be "the need of such a reorganization of

THE VOTE CAST BY MINOR PARTIES DURING THE LAST TWENTY-FOUR YEARS

Year	Socialist	Socialist Labor	People's (Populist)	Prohibition	Independence
1892	21,164	1,041,028	264,133
1896	36,274	245,728	132,007
1900	87,814	39,739	50,373	208,914
1904	402,283	31,249	117,183	258,536
1908	420,793	13,825	29,100	253,840	82,872
1912	901,873	29,259	207,928



J. FRANK HANLY
(Prohibition)

ALLAN L. BENSON
(Socialist)

ARTHUR E. REIMER
(Socialist Labor)

THE PRESIDENTIAL CANDIDATES OF THE MINOR PARTIES

our economic life as will remove the land, the mines, forests, railroads, mills, and factories—all the things required for our physical existence—from the clutches of industrial and financial freebooters, and place them securely and permanently in the hands of the people." So long as the few own and control the economic life of the nation, the many must be enslaved, poverty must coexist with riotous luxury, and civil strife prevail.

The great war in Europe, we are told, is a natural result of the capitalist system of production, and was brought about by the desire of competing groups to control opportunities for foreign investments and trade.

Preparedness for national defense is denounced as false, unnecessary, and dangerous; for a greater army is desired by the capitalist class merely to keep the working class in subjection, and a greater navy would only be used to safeguard foreign investments.

The Socialists demand that "the power be taken from the President to lead the nation into a position which leaves no escape from war." The power to fix foreign policies and conduct diplomatic intercourse should be lodged in Congress and made subject to a referendum vote of the people.

The Monroe Doctrine, intended to safeguard our peace, has become a menace and our greatest danger of war, and should therefore be abandoned. The independence of the Philippines should be recognized in justice to the Filipinos and to ourselves.

THE SOCIALIST LABOR PARTY

The original political group of Socialists in this country was formed in 1877, adopting the name of the Socialist Labor Party. Its early years were stormy, marked by the withdrawal or repudiation of one group after another. Those who remain are ultra-radical members of the self-styled "working class," as distinguished from the capitalist class "which performs no other function than that of pocketing the wealth it steals from the working class." They believe that "it is high time the workers of this country should take over the industries—the shops, mills, mines, railroads—and run them for their own benefit." "If this means revolution, what of it?"

The Socialist Labor Party aims to create a system of social ownership of the means of production, the workers to assume control and direction as well as operation of their industrial affairs. The platform of this party therefore calls upon wage-workers to "prepare by organization politically and industrially to seize the power of government and take possession of industries."

The Presidential candidate of the Socialist Labor Party is Mr. Arthur E. Reimer, and the Vice-Presidential candidate is Mr. Caleb Harrison. Mr. Reimer, with only a grammar-school education, was for fifteen years a tailor until he undertook and completed an evening law course in Boston. He was admitted to the bar in 1912, at the age of

thirty-five, as he was entering upon his first campaign for the Presidency.

THE PROHIBITION CANDIDATE

The Prohibition Party met in national convention at St. Paul in July, and chose the Hon. J. Frank Hanly, of Indianapolis, as candidate for President and Dr. Ira Landrith, of Nashville, for Vice-President. Mr. Eugene W. Chafin, the nominee in 1908 and 1912, led an unsuccessful fight for the nomination of William Sulzer, of New York.

Mr. Hanly is a recent convert to the ranks of the Prohibition Party, although he has long been noted as a social and political reformer. Like Mr. Wilson and Mr. Hughes, he too has served as Governor of his State. As a Republican he had been sent to Congress, almost chosen Senator, and elected Governor. His term in the executive office (1905-1909) was characterized throughout by strong leadership and a high level of statesmanship. He aroused the bitter opposition of politicians and party leaders, but single-handed was able to persuade an unwilling party to adopt a county option anti-saloon law.

The Prohibition candidate is a remarkable campaigner: an eloquent and persuasive orator, and above all a fighter. He was the choice of Indiana Progressives for Governor this spring, but declined because the national platform ignored the liquor question—"the supreme moral, economic, and political issue of the country: the legalized partnership between government and the traffic in intoxicating liquors." Mr. Hanly was born in Illinois fifty-three years ago, and was educated in the common schools. At the age of eighteen he became a public-school teacher, and eight years later gained admission to the bar. With the exception of his periods of public service, he has practised law in Indiana cities for twenty-seven years. Since his term as Governor, he has lectured extensively in the interest of prohibition.

THE PLATFORM OF THE PROHIBITION PARTY

The Prohibitionists were the original party of progressivism, and they still afford a haven for the idealist and the radical. Thus the platform this year condemns universal military service and wasteful preparedness programs, and proposes that our present army should be employed, at an industrial wage, on reclamation and forestry work, and naval vessels should be used wherever possible as merchantmen. War with Mexico is opposed, but the Monroe

Doctrine is approved and the Philippines should for the present be retained.

The platform also declares for the prohibition of child labor, demands an eight-hour working day and the extension of compensation and liability laws, favors the separation of church and state with guaranty of religious and civil rights to all, and advocates uniform marriage and divorce laws.

The movement to prohibit the manufacture, sale, and use of intoxicating liquors has recently made great advances in this country. During the past two years alone, eight States have adopted laws establishing complete prohibition, and in many smaller districts the local-option plan has resulted in the banishment of the saloon. In all of this work the Prohibition Party has played a responsible part; yet its strength at the polls has not increased in twenty years. It is claimed, however, that a million voters have pledged their support to the Prohibition ticket this year.

TWO NEW PARTIES

In the Prohibition convention at St. Paul, the name of William Sulzer had been perhaps more frequently mentioned than any other, but his admirers were unable to obtain his nomination. Soon afterwards, delegates to a convention of the American Party assembled in Minneapolis and nominated Mr. Sulzer as candidate for President and Mr. I. G. Pollard, of Indiana, for Vice-President. This party had been formed in New York, two years ago, to enable Mr. Sulzer to run for Governor and thus afford the people an opportunity to reverse the result of the impeachment proceedings.

The American Party platform declares for religious liberty, separation of church and state, free speech, free press, free public schools, equal suffrage, prohibition, government ownership and control of public utilities, the initiative, referendum and recall, and the abolition of child labor. Mr. Sulzer believes that his party would "redeem America from rum rule and Rome rule."

While Republicans and Progressives were holding their national conventions in June; representative women workers for suffrage met at Chicago and formed a Woman's Party. Last month they assembled again at Colorado Springs and decided to use their best efforts—in the twelve Western States where four million women vote—to defeat Mr. Wilson, the only Presidential candidate who refused to endorse their proposed suffrage amendment to the Federal Constitution.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

IN the following pages appear abstracts of articles from German, French, Russian, Swiss, Greek, Japanese, and Spanish-American sources, not to speak of English and American periodicals from which we quote at some length.

So far as the American popular magazines are concerned, the August issues, as is customary, are given over almost entirely to short stories. In the September numbers, however, there is noticeable a return to serious topics. The *Century*, for example, has an article by William C. Dreher on "Bethmann-Hollweg and German Policies." Another article of more than common interest in this magazine is an illustrated description of the journals that are written by and for the soldiers in the trenches of France, with reproductions of striking features that have appeared from time to time in these printed or mimeographed diaries of trench life. There are even photographs of the editorial "offices" and staffs of these enterprising periodicals, two of which are said to have a circulation of 18,000 each.

Other topics in the September *Century* are: "Working in a Mexican Mine," by Harry A. Franck; "Rodin and the Beaux Arts," by Judith Cladel; and an instalment of the correspondence of the late Richard Watson Gilder, for thirty years the editor of the *Century*.

In the September *Scribner's* the Battle of Verdun is described by Raymond Recouly (Captain X), the French officer whose writings from the front have appeared in successive issues of *Scribner's* and have attracted widespread notice. The instalment of E. H. Sothern's "Remembrances" in this number relates to Charles Frohman and Richard Mansfield. Randolph S. Bourne contributes an article on the much-discussed school system of Gary, Indiana, with an introductory note by Director William Wirt. There is an illustrated article on North American mountain-climbing and Ernest Peixotto describes in text and pictures the picturesque city of Santa Fé in New Mexico.

Current public movements receive the usual allotments of attention in the *North American Review* for August. The editor's comments on political pledges are piquant and impartial in the distribution of blame among various parties and factions. A discussion of "Ignominious Neutrality" by Philip Marshall Brown results in the series of negative conclusions—for example, that neutrality like war itself is abnormal; that a neutral nation cannot remain the friend of both belligerents; that a nation trying to remain neutral suffers many restrictions and infringements of the rights of peace. Mr. Brown's positive dictum is that a neutral nation must necessarily become both a judge and a party in a world war.

In recurring to the well-worn theme of "Prohibition in Kansas," Albert Jay Nock emphasizes the distinction between the prohibition of the saloon and the prohibition of drinking as a habit. Kansas' prohibition, he says, is not directed against drinking at all. It is aimed at the traditional method of retail distribution of liquors.

An article in the *Atlantic* for August on "Democratic Control of Foreign Policy," by G. Lowes Dickinson, refers not, as might possibly be inferred, to the handling of our foreign relations by the Wilson Administration, but to the general aptitude of democracies for diplomacy. To this British writer it appears as if the conditions of popular control of foreign policy were present more fully in the United States than in any other country. It is admitted that the President, although he cannot actually declare war, can conduct negotiations in such a way that Congress has no choice save to declare it. He is, however, an elected officer and naturally desires the support of public opinion. Therefore, it is not probable that American foreign policy will be withdrawn "into that night of secrecy in which the wars of Europe are engendered."

Meredith Nicholson's survey of "The Second-Rate Man in Politics" is photographic in its descriptions of the typical American politician, and applies with startling aptness to the situation in the present Congress.

THE ALLIES OF THE FUTURE — ENGLAND, GERMANY, AND UNCLE SAM

THE second anniversary of the beginning of the great war proved to be the occasion of many deliverances in the nature of prophecy and forecast as well as of retrospect. One of these which caused much comment in the United States was a "meditation" by Professor Hugo Muensterberg of Harvard, published in the *New York Times*.

In his discussion of the world situation that he thinks may reasonably be expected to follow the conclusion of peace, Professor Muensterberg starts with the assumption that Germany cannot be dismembered. In any case, he asserts, Germany will remain a powerful nation. Is it to be supposed that the Teutonic powers will continue isolated on one side while the Allies remain united on the other? Professor Muensterberg thinks not. "A team is a team, harnessed for a task, but not a family bound together for the life of children and children's children." He does not believe that England and France will get on together, and as for Italy, he looks upon her entrance into the anti-Teutonic alliance as a blunder.

England and Russia, says Professor Muensterberg, must part ways when the peace is signed, since the contrast of their world interests has not been changed in the slightest degree by the war against the Central Powers. As a world empire Germany, even before the war, was almost insignificant beside Russia and Great Britain, which have opposite interests, traditions, and ideals. True, they can make a partnership temporarily against their German neighbor, but there are great world problems which in the long run must tend to their separation.

After the war Professor Muensterberg foresees the Russian and British empires as the central energies of two diverging combinations, with Germany as the one European power that can tip the scale for either one of these combinations on the world balance. Many in Germany, he thinks, would favor an alliance with Russia. Austria, Turkey and Japan would join such an alliance, and after a few years Russia with their aid would feel strong enough for the final stroke in India and Egypt. In the war that would ensue the world would be at stake. Europe, Asia, and America would be involved. Every effort, therefore, according to Professor Muensterberg, should be made to avert

such an alliance as the one suggested. In his opinion only one way remains open, and that in the exactly opposite direction. Germany must join not Russia, but England.

Moreover, as Japan has allied herself with Russia, thus menacing America's position in the Pacific, it would be to the interest of the United States to join this British-German alliance. The British navy, the German army, and the American wealth, backed up by English diplomacy, German firmness, and American optimism and dash, would form an invincible alliance. As Professor Muensterberg views it: "It is the one league in the world the mere existence of which would guarantee the peace of the next generation." It would naturally attract France, Austria, Italy, Sweden, Holland, Spain, Brazil, and Argentina. "It would be America and Central Western Europe on one side, Asia and Eastern Europe on the other; but such a partition of the world would not even suggest a contest of arms, as Russia would not dare to attack India and Germany at the same time. It would be truly a world division with a historic allotment of peaceful tasks. If America, Great Britain, and Germany frankly and heartily decide to stand together, the war of today may be the last great war for centuries."

Professor Muensterberg exalts the part that the United States should play in the consummation of this alliance:

The third partner must not wait until the decisive steps of the European nations have been taken. The one alliance which can crown the century demands not only that Germany and England find each other but that they find each other through the good-will of America. Sensationalists have tired our ears with their cries of remember this and remember that and remember everything; it is a greater art and a higher task to forget. If America will, both Germany and England can forget, and in the ocean of thought which binds the three peoples the submarines of emotion will leave their torpedoes at home and will ply unarmed to the foreign shores. Individuals are freer than peoples. Nothing seems needed but that three great men listen to the voice of the age and fulfil today the sacred task for which it may be too late tomorrow. The gods of history have put three great Democrats each into the place of honor and trust and power. If Woodrow Wilson, Bethmann-Hollweg, and Lloyd George will speak the word for which the century is ripe, not only this war will be ended, but future wars will be impossible.

A SWISS VIEW OF GERMAN ECONOMIC POLICIES AFTER THE WAR

THE interest of neutral nations in the economic policies planned by belligerents for the period following on the declaration of peace is scarcely less keen than that of the belligerents themselves. Hence publicists all over the world are considering such questions and anxiously weighing the probable value of such policies in so far as they affect their own actions.

A Swiss writer, Maurice Millioud, discusses in the June number of the *Bibliothèque Universelle* (Lausanne) German plans as indicated in various influential German journals. He declares that official circles in the Central Empires are already facing the future economic struggle between themselves and their vassals and their present military adversaries. He says:

One idea has made the tour of both empires, it is to constitute an *autarchy* of "Central Europe," that is to say, a solid block of nations economically united and sufficient unto themselves. Autarchy is the word in fashion in Germany to designate this politico-economic formation. In sum, it would be the régime of the closed commercial state, such as was recommended by Fichte for Germany. Only, it would comprise Bulgaria and Turkey, with a large field of exploitation in Asia Minor or Mesopotamia. To isolate itself from the rest of Europe and to be self-sufficing would require the reinforcement of agriculture to meet the needs of the people, and the calculation of industrial production with a view to internal consumption as the main issue, allowing exports to take the second place.

There is something tragic in this dream of a Central Europe unifying itself only to barricade itself, and prolonging of its own motion the blockade which it so bitterly accuses England of inflicting.

But one can easily surmise that the representatives of high finance and of the great industries will not readily submit to their part in this total subversion of affairs, with the return to a régime essentially agrarian, any more than to the renunciation of the world-policy and the universal commerce which assures them handsome profits. They do not envy the condition of Tibet, despite their taste for the rôle of Grand Llamas.

Mr. Millioud remarks, however, that the spokesmen of finance, industry, and commerce in no wise reject the dogma of autarchy, but wish to define it in their own fashion. That is, they would make it an autarchy of expansion and even of aggression.

The Frankfort *Gazette* has published a whole series of articles under the title, "Commercial Policy and War." According to this the principal thing is that the Central Empires should be

armed for the negotiations of the treaty of peace, and that to all attempts at exclusion they should oppose the triple demand: the treatment of the most favored nation; equality of treatment; . . . the principle of the open door. . . .

Equality of treatment, freedom of the seas, the open door—what do these mean? Simply the eleventh article of the treaty of Frankfurt renewed and imposed not merely on France, but upon all the competitors of Germany. We know what she has extracted from that since 1871. She promises herself to do better yet. For the empires would treat with each of the Allies, while the Allies would encounter the economic block of Central Europe, flanked by Bulgaria, by Turkey, and perhaps by Greece.

It is just here, thinks Mr. Millioud, that the dogma of autarchy reappears, signifying two things: (1) A union, both in customs and economics of Germany and Austria-Hungary; (2) A common effort of these empires to supply their own needs by their agricultural and industrial production, to which end both production and exchange are to be organized scientifically for their mutual benefit. To this end he believes that the doctrine of concentration of the forces of the nation in the hands of the government—a policy made necessary by the war—will be indefinitely continued in times of peace.

Since the beginning of the war the purchase of the raw materials necessary to industry has been entrusted to great companies which enjoy an exclusive monopoly: Others control the buying of food. . . . All imports and exports are regulated with this double purpose of satisfying the needs of the population and raising the rate of exchange. . . . It is proposed to maintain these measures after the close of the war.

There are, of course, two grave difficulties in the path of this program. One is to make German merchandise acceptable to nations which are even now forming an economic union against Germany. The other is the problem of the support of the German population during the period which must inevitably elapse before the foreign markets are reconquered. Mr. Millioud declares that the answer by German leaders to these questions is that the world cannot do without Germany either as a customer or as a source of supply. He thus resumes the argument:

The Central Empires will say to the Allies: "We will deal nation with nation; you shall not make a league of exclusion against us nor we against you. In the name of the freedom of

commerce, of the open door, and of equality of treatment, we demand permission to traffic with you. It is true that our merchants form a gigantic syndicate of sale, which insures to them the power of cutting prices and flooding your markets, . . . but principles are principles, and their organization is an internal affair which concerns only them and us.

Thus there will be restored in full vigor the practises of "dumping," of commercial spying and infiltration, of establishing long credits, of methodically crushing all native competition—all the practises of commercial ferocity which menace the world with enslavement. And they will be restored under cover of the very principles which the Allies are defending with money and tears and blood.

To overcome prejudice on the part of their late enemies, Mr. Millioud believes the Teutons will go subtly to work by founding companies in neutral countries and stamping German goods with the marks of these countries. These houses will thus serve as inter-

mediaries between German producers and the markets of the Allies. To support the population during these years of slow and crafty manipulation the present war measures of government control of supplies and consumption will be continued in force.

There will be a common Alimentary Bureau for the army and for civilians. Already the future director is called the Alimentary Dictator (*Lebensmittel diktator*). . . . This is the Prussianization of supplies, and if you consider all the rest, the Prussianization of economic matters . . . one may well ask if there will remain any place for the individual in this super-complicated mechanism of the new functions of the state: economic policies, social policies, alimentary policies.

Is it surprising that the Kaiser has received Socialist deputies and addressed them with insinuating words—this régime passes their wildest dreams! It is more than the socialization of the means of production; it is the socialization of everything.

VENIZELOS ON THE ALLIES' INTERVENTION IN GREECE

COMMENTING on the recent resignation of the Skouloudis Government of Greece, former Premier Venizelos, the leader of the Liberal party, sets forth in a recent number of *Kiryx* (Athens) some of the reasons which in his opinion justify the action of the Entente Allies in demanding additional guarantees of neutrality on the one hand through total demobilization of the Greek troops, and on the other hand through the formation of a new government.

Mr. Venizelos characterizes the attitude of the Skouloudis Government towards the Entente Allies as undisguisedly malevolent. He severely condemns the handing over of the fortress of Rupel to the Bulgarians, and charges that the government organized attacks upon the offices of certain Liberal newspapers and irritated the powers through insults directed against the embassies. The powers, on their part, considered themselves not only as the guardians of Greece through the international acts by which she was constituted an independent kingdom, but that this guardianship was further confirmed by the contract through which they offered the crown of the constitutional Kingdom of Greece to the second son of the King of Denmark after the revolution of 1862. They therefore demanded the restoration of the constitution in its full effect through the holding of elections, after the demobiliza-

tion of the army, to determine the national will.

Friends of the fallen government declare that this action of the Allies constitutes an interference with the internal affairs of Greece. Mr. Venizelos freely admits the truth of this assertion, but charges that the interference was caused by the defiant attitude of the Skouloudis Government and its refusal to give up office even after repressive measures began to be applied against Greece and all formal relations had been cut off on the part of the Entente. Since the policy of Greece had changed from a friendly to an openly unfriendly one, in spite of repeated votes of the representatives of the nation and in spite of the popular vote on May 31, Mr. Venizelos regards it as only natural that the powers, as protectors of the independence and constitutional liberties of the Greek people, should demand that the people be called upon after the demobilization to express their will concerning the government.

He welcomes this action of the powers as based not only on treaties and contracts, but as aimed at the overthrow of the system of espionage and the terrorism to which the people have been subjected. So long as the attempt is made to obtain the free expression of their sovereign will, the Greek people will find in this action new reasons for gratitude to the protecting powers.



ANATOLIA COLLEGE AND HOSPITAL AT MARSOVAN, IN ASIA MINOR, SEIZED BY TURKISH AUTHORITIES
(The large, fully equipped hospital at the right)

THE EVICTION OF AMERICANS FROM MARSOVAN BY THE TURKS

IN May last, President George E. White, of Anatolia College; Dr. J. K. Marden, in charge of Anatolia Hospital, and a group of men and women connected with the various institutions of the American Board at Marsovan, Asia Minor, were evicted by the Turkish officials and sent to Constantinople under orders of the general commanding the third Turkish army, the strained relations between Germany and the United States being given as a reason for the deportation. The buildings of the American Board at Marsovan, including college, hospital, girls' school, theological seminary, residences, and shops were seized by the Turkish Government with the ostensible object of utilizing them for the purpose of a military hospital.

Dr. White, who is now in this country, contributes to the August number of the *Missionary Herald* (Boston) an account of the experiences of the mission group during the week preceding the actual eviction. He and his associates requested of the Turkish governor of Marsovan an opportunity to communicate with the American embassy, but the governor rejected this request, saying that the embassy was closed, that relations were strained to-day, to be broken off to-morrow, and that the next day there would be war between the two countries. He asserted that these things had been officially communicated to him. The military commandant told Dr. White that his orders were of a military nature, came through the military channel, and concerned the hospital and dispensary only. These were to be requisitioned and occupied as a measure of

military necessity. The governor refused Dr. White's request for a written statement of his official proceedings concerning American interests. Every American was required to leave Marsovan and no other person was permitted to accompany them, even as a servant. This is Dr. White's summing up of the official action taken in the case:

The action of the officials can probably be represented as taken under the color of martial law; but it seems to us to have been promoted by an unfriendly spirit towards citizens of a friendly power, and the method of execution to have been illegal and harsh. The officials put our premises under control of a strong guard of armed men before they made us any statement of their intent, treating us as criminals and holding us virtually as prisoners. They prevented us from communicating with our embassy. They refused us time to list our properties and requisitioned our private houses and our personal effects. They so guarded our premises as to prevent friends from visiting us and to prevent sale or donation of our goods.

They cut up our premises by barricading off certain parts, a proceeding which had no legal relation with sending away foreigners or equipping a hospital. They seized, sealed, and held our safe, which contains our official documents and other valuables, though they allowed us to take the money. They assumed the conduct and management of our schools, as if these were hostile institutions. They required every American to leave Marsovan, but not Miss Zbinden, who is a Swiss citizen, thus discriminating against American citizenship.

The hospital, college, and school buildings, with full equipment, including a library of 10,000 volumes and a museum—the whole valued at \$225,000—were left in the custody of a group of Turkish officials.

WHAT IS REAL AMERICANISM?



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MISS FRANCES A. KELLOR, THE AUTHOR OF
"STRAIGHT AMERICA"

"**S**TRIGHT America," a call to national service, a handbook by Miss Frances A. Kellor, urges American citizens to undertake every possible measure that will lead to a more united nationalism. Among the subjects discussed are: "Americanism: What It Is," "America-Made Citizens," "National Unity: the Factors Which Make for It," "The Native American," and "The Popular Vote." Miss Kellor asks: What is the matter with America? And the answer is, that most of the people are not Americans.

The practical questions before America are how to become Americanized, and how to stay Americanized. The answer to the first question comprehends all the measures of preparedness adapted to our present needs. The answer to the second comprehends America's policy after the war.

In Miss Kellor's opinion, we have as a nation conformed largely to the wishes of local governments and their representatives; we have not had unifying legislation because we have not had a vision of the United States as a whole, nor the urge of personal responsibility. We are still local, provincial, and self-interested.

The Congressman still represents, not America,

but his district. This is illustrated by the retention of useless army posts and state militia doing police duty. . . . We are still propagandists occupying the field of debate on matters of preparedness. We are relying on the Presidential campaign—the heat of battle as usual—to tell us where "we are at" after nearly two years of world conflict.

In the chapter on Americanism, she quotes the pledge circulated recently among young men, especially in colleges and universities:

I being over eighteen years of age, hereby pledge myself against enlistment as a volunteer for any military or naval service in international warfare, offensive or defensive, and against giving my approval to such enlistment on the part of others.

Compare with this pledge that solemn oath taken many years ago by the wise elders of a new republic:

. . . In support of these truths we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

Which strikes the keynote to the future of America?

Miss Kellor finds certain things essential to Americanism—a common language, a common citizenship, a new social impulse back of our patriotism and the art of *caring*, the holding of the ideals of Americanization in our hearts and souls, not as dry-a-dust theory, but as living impulse and fervent faith. We must deal with the immigrant fairly; we must be patient and teach him what he should know; we must protect him equally with our own native born citizens. And in this great process of Americanization everyone must cheerfully bear his part, women and men must work shoulder to shoulder.

After a survey of the immigration question and of the weakness in industrial preparedness, which is the labor supply, Miss Kellor attacks the question of national defense.

What does Americanization mean in national defense?

It means putting the American flag above all others, abolishing dual citizenship, and pledging open allegiance to America.

It means American citizenship for every alien within our borders or deportation . . . We can no longer endure as a polyglot boarding-house. . . .

It means one language for America and the abolition of illiteracy.

It means the abolition of class prejudices and of racial hatreds, and of the intolerance of the old stock for new stock.

It means one American standard of living. . . .
It means the Americanization of women.

Only two things—a rediscovery of a stern sense of duty among American youth; and a recovery of that stern idealism that persistently exacts of men a social responsibility, a consideration of a *first* claim beyond the claim of the family, personal success, career—can establish American citizenship on a sound basis. With the native American these things are, as I have said, a *rediscovery*.

She arraigns the defense legislation of the year as evidence of heartbreaking national failure. We can not prepare efficiently for we have not a united America back of the army and navy.

A thorough-going policy of national preparedness to insure national unity and action cannot comprise less than five main divisions, all proceeding together toward a common goal. They are military preparedness, industrial mobilization, universal service, Americanization, and international duty.

Some space is devoted to a suggestion of the proposed work in connection with the usefulness of the railroads for national de-

fense of the American Railway Association's committee, Mr. Fairfax Harrison, president of the Southern Railway Company; Mr. W. G. Besler, president of the Central Railroad of New Jersey; Mr. R. H. Aishton, vice-president of the Chicago & Northwestern, and Mr. W. A. Thompson, general manager of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad.

In the midst of a national situation that defies the keenest political analysts, where the demands of leadership run counter with the necessities of an unshaped nationalism, Miss Kellor's plain-speaking volume helps to clarify thought and to focus attention on the actual problems that confront us at the present time. The book is terse and readable; its logic can not be gainsaid nor the forcefulness of its argument ignored.¹ Miss Kellor has studied at first hand the problems discussed in her book, especially those related to immigration. She has served as special investigator for the State of New York.

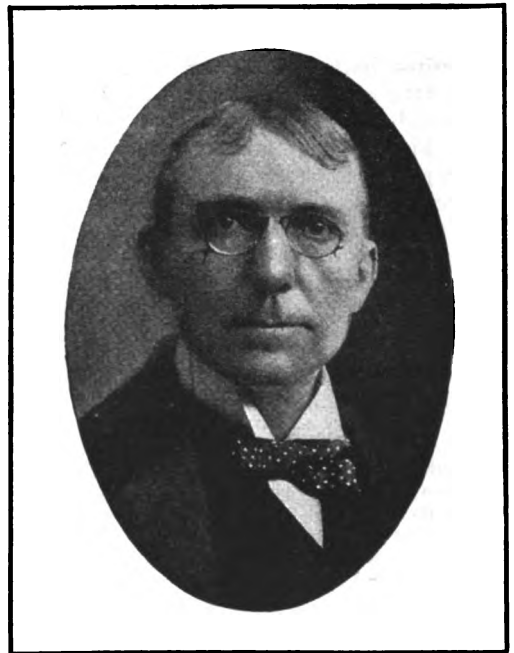
¹ Straight America. By Frances A. Kellor. Macmillan. 193 pp. 50 cents.

JAMES WHITCOMB RILEY

DURING his lifetime the public did not take the trouble to estimate the poetical genius of James Whitcomb Riley. It will hardly do so now, for it matters little to the people who like his dialect poems, whether "Little Orphant' Annie," "The Raggedy Man," "Old-Fashioned Roses," and "Kneedeep in June," were great poetry or not. The common people will go on reading his verses, and if they would express a general opinion, it would probably be in essentials—that Riley's poems were full of the inimitable raciness of true Hoosier genius, that they were warm, tender, human, quaint, and lovely, and that they revealed an exquisite modulation of the imaginative power of poetry which brought out and threw into high relief the innate characteristics of a certain Middle West sectional life, and the outlines of certain ineradicable instincts and sympathies, which we are accustomed to call purely American.

Mrs. May Riley Smith, a well-known Eastern poetess, said in a recent interview in the New York *Sunday Times*, that Riley's poetry will live long after the so-called "New Poetry" is forgotten.

The Imagistes and Futurists may smile at the simplicity of his art (so difficult to achieve) and at his adherence to the worn-out forms of verse,



JAMES WHITCOMB RILEY, THE HOOSIER POET
(Who died on July 22, 1916)

but his work will live when their new molds are crumbled to dust and forgotten.

Bliss Carman also expressed an interesting

opinion of the Hoosier poet in the *Times*. He said: "Riley was the greatest American poet of our time." His dialect poems he considers of equal rank with Burns'.

I think as a dialect poet Riley ranks with Robert Burns. Riley's dialect was native to him as Burns's was to him; he was at home with it. . . . There has been much discussion of the poetry of democracy. It seems to me that Riley was the poet of democracy. Whitman was not the poet of democracy; he was the prophet of democracy. Whitman had no popularity among the people. What Whitman cared for was the ideal of democracy. But Riley gave voice to the ideals of the people themselves. He was one of the people. . . .

In regard to his own personal remembrances of the poet, Bliss Carman said:

Any man's character is best remembered, I suppose, by some of his habitual gestures and expressions. I remember Riley as very deliberate in his motions, especially in his last years. Smooth shaven, ruddy, well groomed, he looked like a benign old English Bishop more than anything else. He looked like a Bishop whom I remember seeing in my boyhood, the Bishop of Fredericktown, and he looked like Savonarola, with his long upper lip, brilliant blue eyes, and prominent strong Roman nose. He had beautiful hands—long, smooth, soft, delicate hands. He was a born poet, a born humorist, and a born actor.

Don Marquis began his tribute to Riley in the New York *Sunday Sun*, with a whimsical analysis of the true Hoosier. They are, he writes, half elemental, the kinfolk of the little brothers of Elfland and of the dwellers in Arcady; and they are aware not only of their kinship with humanity but with animals, plants, flowers and streams. He makes us see Riley as the revealer of a life that was hidden from ordinary mortals, the interpreter to grownups of the childhood that they have forgotten. In regard to the repeated accusation that Riley was sentimental he writes:

Indeed, he is as sentimental as Dickens or Victor Hugo or Burns. Perhaps no poet was ever so loved as Riley by so many and such diverse people unless he possessed that eager, tender, human warmth which is sentiment. . . .

Probably no poet who ever wrote English—certainly no American poet—got more luscious, dripping, juicy sweetness out of the language than Riley. A sweetness that is not so sugary that it cloy, having always a winey tang.

His verses for children and about children could only have been written by a man whose love and understanding of children was real, for children are quick to detect and repudiate anything of the sort that is "pumped up" for effect, and they contributed enormously to the general feeling of affection for him. The regard of the children was in a way a testimonial to his persisting youthfulness of spirit; he was still their play-

mate; perhaps it is an earnest of immortality, if immortality can be. Certainly love endures longer than anything else, and this man with the childlike sweetness in his soul goes from us loved as few men have been.

In view of Riley's fame as a poet, it is interesting to note some criticisms of his work and aspirations made by the newspapers about 1878, when Riley was editor of the Anderson (Indiana) *Democrat*, in connection with his famous hoax in which he foisted a poem "Leonainie," an imitation of Edgar Allan Poe written by himself, upon the public as a posthumous poem of Poe's. Riley perpetrated the hoax because of the editors' neglect of his work. He concluded that his verses would gain instant attention if they bore a distinguished name, and "Leonainie" was sent to the editor of the Kokomo *Dispatch* signed with the initials "E. A. P." and accompanied by an ingenious story of the finding of the poem on the fly-leaf of an old book. It was immediately published and freely commented upon by critics, many of whom had no doubt of the genuineness of the "find." Riley himself was one of the editors who commented editorially upon the poem. When Riley confessed the hoax, the critics fell upon him with renewed vigor. The following quotations were published in a recent number of the Indianapolis *News*:

Logansport Journal—"If Riley could realize that an impassable gulf lies between him and fame as a poet, he would be justly punished."

Wabash Plaindealer—"Written by one who is merely the victim of a vaulting ambition, which overleaps itself."

New York Post—(William Cullen Bryant) . . . "The poem effectually sets at rest whatever suspicion there may have been that the author has materials out of which a poet is made in his composition."

The qualities of Riley's poetry and of Riley's character that forced success out of failure and confounded the critics will do so anywhere and any time. They are in the main, love of humanity, sympathetic insight, personality and the power of genuine joyfulness. His poems will live, even as the Percy Ballads have lived, for they have in common with these relics "pleasing simplicity and many artless graces" and they "interest the heart." And one may say of James Whitcomb Riley, what Matthew Arnold said of Robert Burns: "His view of life and the world is large, free and benignant—truly poetic therefore—and his manner of rendering what he sees is to match."

A HINDU POET WELCOMED IN JAPAN

SIR RABINDRANATH TAGORE will visit the United States again this fall. He will begin a lecture tour in Seattle in September and reach the East in November or December. During the summer Tagore visited Japan, where he received a most enthusiastic welcome from East Indians and Japanese. One of the things that particularly impressed the poet-philosopher was the great ease with which he accomplished the journey from India to Japan, a journey which in the old days before the advent of steamships and railroads might have occupied many months. But Tagore sees in the conveniences of modern civilization, barriers to man's attainment of spiritual growth. Life has become intricate and complex, and man's nature has lost its old transparency and simplicity and demands artificial stimulants and sensationalism.

The *Japan Chronicle* reports an address which Tagore gave at Osaka on "Modern Civilization," in which he deplores the tendencies of the bustling commercial life of the present day:

It is the stupendous unreality of this modern civilization, always changing its shapes and shifting its course, furiously riding upon the dust-storm of unmeaning restlessness, scattering about it in the wind shreds of things torn and tangled, decaying and dead—all this is making the real man invisible to himself and to others. In the days of heroic simplicity it was easy to come near to the real man, but in modern times it is the phantasm of the giant Time itself which is everywhere, and the man is lost beyond recognition; and while the means of communication are multiplying fast, communication itself is diminishing in its reality.

He sees Japan caught as firmly in the whirlwind of modern civilization, as England, France, and the United States.

A stranger like myself cannot help feeling on landing in your country that what I see before me is the temple of the modern age, where before the brazen images an immense amount of sacrifice of life is offered and an interminable round of ritualism is performed. But I must not lose heart. I



Photo by Bain

SIR RABINDRANATH TAGORE IN THE GARDEN OF COUNT OKUMA, WASEDA, JAPAN

must seek and find what is true in this land—true to the soul of the people—what is Japan, what is unique, and not merely a mask of the time which is monotonously the same in all latitudes and longitudes.

The poet was delighted to receive so warm a welcome from the Japanese. From his youth he had cherished a desire to visit the country, and to find that modern Japan could give a poet who scorns "commercial scramblings and political piracies" a hearty welcome gave him intense pleasure.

It was a great relief to me to be treated in a manner that convinced me that your hearts still have room for the green of the earth and the blue of the sky—and your cherry blossoms will still have their chance in their competition with shrill machines and brand new inventions of this age of the corrugated iron sheds, gramophones and cinematograph shows.

From my young days, my thoughts have constantly turned to Japan. And since, in later years, I have witnessed the wonderful rise to eminence in Asia of your great nation, it has been one of my special desires to visit Japan, where the East and the West found their meeting-place and carried on their courtship far enough to give assurance of a wedding. It was my desire to know where and how Japan's Past found its affinity in its Present, and where lies the secret of her power which has the flexibility of a tempered steel blade, which bends, but does not break.

SOME FINANCIAL ASPECTS OF THE PANAMA CANAL

THE average citizen ceased to be interested in Panama Canal tolls when the burning question as to whether American coastwise shipping was or was not to enjoy free passage through the waterway was decided in the negative two years ago. But the commerce that uses the canal and the financial experts connected with its administration are still actively debating the toll question. Are the tolls too high? Should they be uniform (the question of nationality apart)? Could they be abolished altogether? The last question is pertinent when one compares the Panama Canal with another canal which represents an enormous burden upon public funds; viz., the New York State Barge Canal. Prior to 1882 the Erie Canal much more than paid for itself in tolls. After that year a constitutional provision prohibited the levying of tolls, and the \$140,000,000 invested in the new canal system will earn no direct revenue.

Writing in the *Scientific Monthly*, Mr. C. E. Grunsky, the well-known engineer and former member of the Isthmian Canal Commission, asks whether the United States can afford to make such investments for the benefit of commerce without recovering interest.

When a highway is constructed, when a harbor is dredged, when such works as the breakwater at San Pedro Bay, the breakwater at the mouth of the Columbia River, the South Pass at the mouth of the Mississippi River, the Ambrose Channel at New York harbor, and the many lighthouses on our ocean coasts, on the lakes and rivers, are constructed at Government expense, the commerce which is benefited thereby is not taxed. The cost of these works is willingly borne by the country at large. There is no sinking-fund to be provided. No interest on the investment is expected. Even the operating expenses come from the national or State treasuries. All this finds general acceptance as a matter of course. It is economically sound. The indirect return to the country is many times greater than the cost which has been incurred in the construction of such improvements, and no one objects to the wise expenditure of public funds for these purposes.

In what respect, then, does the Panama Canal, as an aid to commerce, differ from these works which are nearer home? In this only, broadly speaking, that in the case of all these other improvements, there is United States territory at one end, at least, of each business transaction which they facilitate, while the Panama Canal not only facilitates business between our own ports and between our country and foreign countries, but, also, in no small measure, the business carried on between foreign countries.

As we have not yet reached the altruistic stage of being as solicitous about the prosperity of foreign countries as about that of our own, we must apply a different economic principle in the case of the Panama Canal from that which is constantly applied in the case of public improvements carried out within our own borders by the Federal, State, and local governments.

This does not mean that we are to exact the "whole pound of flesh"—that we are to make the traffic pay for the canal. By no means. We should not even ask the traffic to return to us any part of the canal cost, but we may, in all fairness, ask for a small interest return in order that foreign shipping, engaged in trade between foreign countries, may not be relieved entirely of a fair contribution toward interest on the money invested in the canal.

In so far as the business having any United States port at one end is concerned, it would be not only proper, but desirable, to have the tolls arranged with a view to making no interest return upon the invested capital. Let the whole country, every section of which profits directly or indirectly, stand this part of the operating cost. But in the case of traffic through the canal with foreign ports at each end of the business transaction the matter is different, and whether the ships be under a foreign or under the American flag, the tolls should be somewhat higher, estimated, perhaps, as they would be estimated if the entire traffic through the canal were to yield a low interest rate on the investment.

Against any policy looking to the recovery of the cost of the canal out of its earnings there should be strong protest. It cannot be carried out without materially restricting the usefulness of the canal. It would be unwise and unfair to those who use the canal. It would put this Government into the undesirable position of having entered upon a commercial venture for profit with unnecessary restrictions upon the world's commerce.

In giving expression to these views no consideration has been given to the fact that for military purposes alone the canal is worth to the United States all that it has cost. There is special reason, therefore, for making the traffic charges lower than would be done if the construction of the canal had been determined by commercial considerations alone.

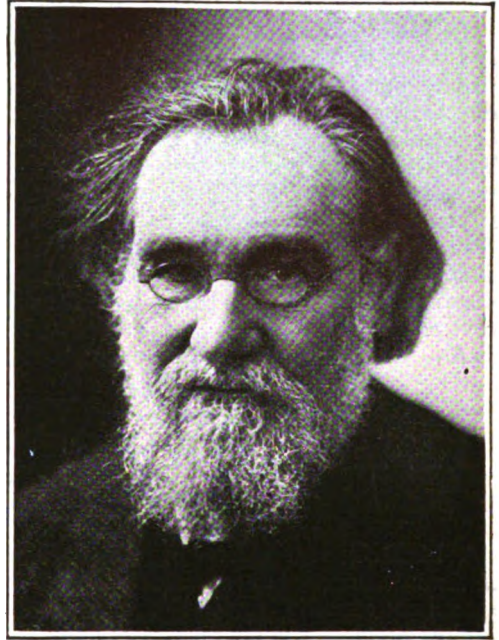
The proposition sometimes advanced that consideration should be given to the transcontinental railroads when canal tolls are fixed is without special merit. Their business is a matter apart. They are entitled to and will get adequate protection, but should not look to a high canal tariff as an aid in increasing their business. There is no obligation on the part of the American people to reduce canal traffic for the benefit of the railroads and their users, and it would be a mistake on the part of the railroads to make any such claim.

RUSSIA MOURNS THE DEATH OF METCHNIKOFF

IT is an interesting reminder to the civilized world that while the Russian masses were engaged on the fields of battle in the most stupendous struggle in history, there came to its conclusion in France the life of a "son of the Steppes" who had for forty-five years waged in the seclusion of his laboratories a successful battle in behalf of a happier humanity. That "son of the Steppes," as he had styled himself, was Ilya Metchnikoff, famous bacteriologist, head of the Pasteur Institute in Paris, and recognized benefactor of the human race. In the person of Metchnikoff, young and "barbarous" Russia, the Russia of the countless millions, had another opportunity to challenge the old and civilized nations of western Europe. As against England's Shakespeare, France's Hugo, Germany's Goethe, Russia had produced Tolstoy; and as against England's Darwin, France's Pasteur, Germany's Virchow, backward Russia sent forth Metchnikoff. Thus, in both literature and science, the two greatest fields of endeavor for the human intellect, the Russian people have proved themselves equal in ability, if not superior, to the most advanced nations on earth.

It is in that sense that the Russian press interpreted the death of the great scientist. And it is only through that tragic event that one could have come to realize the immensity of the pride Russia took in Metchnikoff. The Russian people, it will be no exaggeration to say, felt his death more poignantly than they ever felt the loss of an army or the fall of a city. In the *Retch* (Petrograd) for July 17, P. N. Miliukov, leader of the Constitutional Democrats, tells of his visit to Metchnikoff some weeks ago, in company with A. I. Shingareff, both of whom were members of the Russian Parliamentary Delegation.

Metchnikoff is dead. A. I. Shingareff and I were perhaps the last Russians from Russia to see our famous scientist and converse with him while he was ill abed. At that time the physicians had already given up hope of saving him, but, in spite of that, one wanted so much to think that he might live yet. He was lying in the clean little room on rue Pasteur, where his wife affectionately cared for him, acting like a trained nurse. We were admitted to him at the appointed hour, in the morning, before the doctor's visit, when he usually felt better. He was so anxious to see and listen to people from his native land. His questions were always ready,



A RECENT PORTRAIT OF METCHNIKOFF

and he would ask them most systematically. He wanted to find out the minutest details about all that interested him, and he was ready, it seemed, to inquire for hours and hours. He was so optimistic, alert, as usual, wise and thoughtful. When would the war end? What will happen in Russia after the war? How do the different classes and political factions in Russia regard the war?

The extraordinary freshness of thought, the profound realism of understanding, and alertness, the mental alertness and elasticity, in this man condemned to death, produced such an indelible effect. I went away deeply affected by the immediate gravity of this last meeting of ours. One's thought could not stand the idea that it was to be the last. But the wife of the sick man evidently entertained no illusions. One got an impression of something unusual and striking from this grave facing of the inevitable. And it was like Metchnikoff to die thus, free and proud, without being overcome by human weakness, controlling with his will the laws of nature.

Metchnikoff died on July 15 of a heart disease which he had contracted some years ago through self-inoculation in the course of an experiment. Born in the Province of Kharkov, Little Russia, on May 15, 1845, Metchnikoff early demonstrated his remarkable abilities. These he ascribed to his mother, who was a Jewess. His father was an officer of the Guard. At the age of nineteen he was graduated from the Kharkov

University, an extraordinary achievement in Russia, passing through the university in two years instead of the required four. He became Professor of Zoölogy in the Odessa University.

In 1882 he went to Italy to study biology, and it was in Messina, in 1884, at the age of twenty-nine, that he made his first famous discovery, which won for him universal recognition as a benefactor of the human race. This was that the congestion of blood at a wound was caused by the white blood cells' struggle against the invading microbes. The first, known in medicine as leucocytes, were discovered by Virchow. The microbes were discovered by Pasteur. Metchnikoff thus discovered the missing link in formulating his discovery as the theory of inflammation.

In 1895 he became head of the Pasteur Institute in Paris. A good many of the following years Metchnikoff devoted to his theory of longevity, which won him universal fame and popularity. He claimed that the average human life should be twice as long as now. He believed that such a length was obtainable through a diet based on nourishment containing the Bulgarian bacillus, *i. e.*, the bacillus of sour milk. In 1909 he first proclaimed this theory, and in 1912 he discovered a microbe in the intestines of a dog which he believed to be a step forward in the discovery of a treatment to prevent old age. In 1908 he divided the Nobel Prize for Medical Research with the Dr. Paul Ehrlich of Berlin. His share (\$20,000) he devoted entirely to his medical research work.

PERCY GRAINGER, "THE KIPLING OF MUSIC"

AMONG newcomers in the field of music, none has aroused more widespread interest in musical circles in the United States in the last two years than Mr. Percy Grainger, the young Australian-born pianist-composer, who came to these shores shortly after the outbreak of the Great War in Europe and who, apparently, has found in the neighborhood of New York a congenial home. Several of his compositions have been among the most striking novelties performed at orchestral concerts throughout the country in the last two musical "seasons," and his finely artistic pianoforte playing has been heard in many American cities. He has done more probably than any other living composer to revive interest in folkmusic and likewise to arouse interest in exotic musical systems. The REVIEW OF REVIEWS for September, 1915, under the heading "Personality in Folkmusic," printed a digest of an article on "The Impress of Personality in Unwritten Music" which this composer had contributed to the *Musical Quarterly*.

Now Mr. Grainger is the subject of an interesting essay in appreciation in the current issue of the *Musical Quarterly* (New York), by Cyril Scott, of London, himself a composer of very modern and individualistic music. He entitles his paper, "Percy Grainger, the Music and the Man," and among his qualifications for writing it is a friendship with Mr. Grainger covering a period verging on twenty years and dating from the time when that young gentleman

in his early 'teens was composing pieces for the pianoforte in the style of Handel.

This writer not only finds that Kipling has exerted a great influence upon Percy Grainger's musical personality, but would name him a Kipling among composers. Young Grainger did not write like Handel very long, and even in his student days at Frankfort-on-the-Main, when the Hoch Conservatoire was one of the finest musical educational institutions in Europe, he elected to go his own way, and to be guided by his intuitions rather than the suggestions of a teacher. Mr. Scott says:

Grainger, then, did not trouble to learn the rules (as most of us do), in order to know how to break them—he merely broke them from the beginning. Swerving away very soon from his Handelian tendencies he began to show a harmonic modernism which was astounding in so young a boy, and at times excruciating to our pre-Debussyan ears. And strange to say, he began writing in a whole-tone scale without knowing of Debussy's existence. At sixteen years of age he had, in fact, developed a style, and that style was the outcome of a discovery, and a literary discovery, not a musical one; for he had discovered Rudyard Kipling, and from that writer he imbibed an essence and translated it into music.

Likening this to the influence exercised by that genius of vision, Jean Paul Friedrich Richter, upon Robert Schumann, he continues:

We may take it, then, that there is an artistic link between two souls, and as much the outcome of a self-made destiny, *i. e.*, the law of sequence

and consequence, as there are links of hatred and love; and that great law destined Kipling and Grainger to exist on the material plane at the same time. Now, one notes that it is only a great artist who can draw his influence from another art instead of his own. A small composer is usually influenced by a greater composer whom he copies with an admixture of an unpleasantly tasting honey; a sweetness which is the invariable concomitant of weakness. But it was not in the nature of Grainger's talents to do this except at the very babyhood of his musical awakening, and in finding Kipling he found also *himself*; or I should add, at any rate a great part of himself. Certainly the best music he produced at that early period was to be found among his settings of that famous writer, and one song, "The Men of the Sea," stands out as a gem which the dust of a good many eventful years has not succeeded in tarnishing. It is, of course, obvious that where the writer and the composer were so unified, a perfect work of art was the result, and from that beginning up to the present time whenever Grainger elects to produce one of his Kipling's settings, be it song or chorus, he *becomes* Kipling in a manner which nobody else in the musical arena can approach.

Mr. Scott has no hesitation in saying that Grainger's creative genius "will leave an imperishable name in the history of English music." That the folksong should appeal to Percy Grainger in the way it does, he thinks, is not a matter for surprise, considering the Kipling influence, but it has undoubtedly led the public to make a false estimate of Grainger's powers as an original composer. Among his published works a preponderance of folksong settings have grown popular. A man nearly always becomes celebrated by his lightest and most frivolous and most easily understandable works, and Grainger "has certainly become a victim to this trait in the public's mentality; for having given the public a few 'light' works, it at once supposes that he can write nothing but 'light' works."

It is, therefore, one of the objects of this



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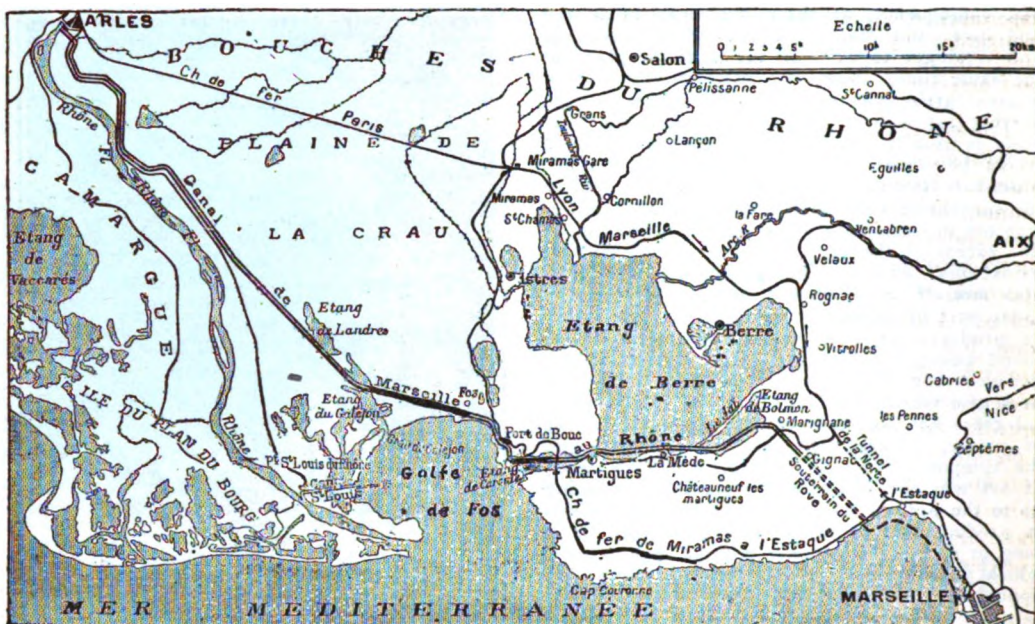
article to dispel that entirely false notion, for certainly the "Hill Song" for wind instruments; "The English Dance" for full orchestra; the "Father and Daughter" for male quartet, chorus and orchestra, including a number of guitars, are works of paramount seriousness displaying an inspiration and a technique which awakened, in many of us, one of the greatest musical sensations we have had for many a long year. But it must not be supposed that in talking of seriousness one implies anything which could for a moment suggest dullness or the academic. Grainger is anything but classical; he is not, like Max Reger, a sort of elongation of Brahms—indeed this goes without saying, but one may add with truthfulness that he is not an elongation of anything; but the essence of folksong augmented to a great work of art. Even when he keeps the folksongs almost within their original dimensions he has a way of dealing with them which is entirely new, yet at the same time, never lacking in taste.

THE RHONE-MARSEILLES CANAL

THE recent completion of the Rhone Canal at Marseilles, France, is the occasion of an article in the *Correspondant*, of Paris, containing an account of this notable engineering work and dwelling upon its great economic importance to France. The writer, Francis Marre, calls attention to the fact that at the very time when the Battle of Verdun was at its height, the French Minister of Public Works presided over the ceremony that marked the opening of the long tunnel through the rocky range of the Nerthe.

The writer regards this canal as one of the most considerable—perhaps the most considerable—of the public works undertaken by France in the course of the last twenty years. This he considers a careful estimate from the point of view of the effort involved and from that of the result anticipated. He says:

The material importance of the work to be accomplished, the nature and number of the difficulties to be surmounted, the total capital engaged, the knowledge and daring of the engineers, offer a splendid evidence of our energy,



MAP (FROM A FRENCH SOURCE) OF THE RHONE-MARSEILLES CANAL RECENTLY OPENED

an imposing testimonial of our industrial and financial strength. On the other hand, the direct connection of Marseilles with our interior navigable system paves the way for an economic revolution pregnant with inestimable results, not alone for the regions concerned but for all France.

The point in question is, in fact, to make Marseilles hereafter the direct and normal terminus of the great river way formed by the Rhone, in such sort that it will play the part on the Mediterranean that Havre and Rouen do at the mouth of the Seine, Nantes and Saint-Nazaire at that of the Loire, and Bordeaux at the estuary of the Gironde.

'At present, says the writer, the Rhone is not greatly utilized for navigation owing to the swiftness of its current, and, though special improvements have considerably increased the volume of traffic on the river, it still remains insignificant in comparison with that of the Seine

or of the Loire. The article proceeds to point out the chief obstacles to the development of navigation on the Rhone:



Photograph by Press Illustrating Co.

ENTRANCE TO THE LARGEST TUNNEL IN THE WORLD
ON THE RHONE-MARSEILLES CANAL

The main hindrance is that the unavoidable interruption of the voyage at Beaucaire or at Arles makes the Rhone a veritable cul-de-sac. In fact, in the lower part of its course, when the river, upon mature reflection, decides to stretch out its choked-up arms into the marshy plains of La Camargue, the gravel and alluvium, unceasingly drifted by the current, and, owing to the absence of tide, deposited at its mouth, form a series of shoals and dams, all the more troublesome on account of their being subject to constant change. Thus there has arisen between the river and the sea an almost impassable barrier to navigation, which all possible embankments and dredgings have not succeeded in overcoming.

In order to remedy these drawbacks, and at the same time invest the river with all the commercial and industrial

importance which is its due, a vast scheme of construction has been projected, of which the canal, in process of completion to-day, is the most pressing and important.

The entire length of the canal from Arles to Marseilles is eighty-one kilometers (fifty miles). Its most remarkable feature is the tunnel, or subterranean water-way, which was rendered necessary by the rocky range of the Nerthe, which interposes its mass at the approach to the Mediterranean and Marseilles. This tunnel is four and a half miles long, but what renders it remarkable is its breadth and height, which make it at the present time unique in the world. The breadth, at the spring of the vault, is 22 meters (77½ feet), and the height, from the bottom of the canal to the vault, is 14.4 meters (47½ feet). In view not only of those dimensions, but also of the peculiar difficulties encountered, the writer declares that the construction of this great subterranean water-way will remain perhaps the most remarkable achievement of French en-

gineering in the first quarter of the twentieth century.

In conclusion, the writer comments thus on the economic importance of the expected enlargement of the commerce of Marseilles:

Looking at the matter from the essential point of traffic, one may readily realize the economic importance to Marseilles of the Rhone canal by remembering that the river traffic of Paris makes it the chief port of France as regards tonnage. When Marseilles shall have added to her maritime traffic, which amounts to 20,000,000 metric tons (about 40,000,000 of our tons) annually, all that the extension of the navigable part of the Rhone will bring her one is justified in believing that her traffic will be doubled.

It is not alone Lyons and the entire Rhone valley, but all France that is bound to benefit by the enormous increase of prosperity which the opening of the new waterway will, as a matter of course, produce. It is well, in fact, to bear in mind the great economic phenomenon that contemporary geographers have demonstrated. The location of a port, well equipped, at the terminus of a great interior traffic route, makes it very rapidly a center of all the commerce of the neighboring regions, as well as a most flourishing port of anchorage.

LIVING GERMS AS MUSEUM SPECIMENS

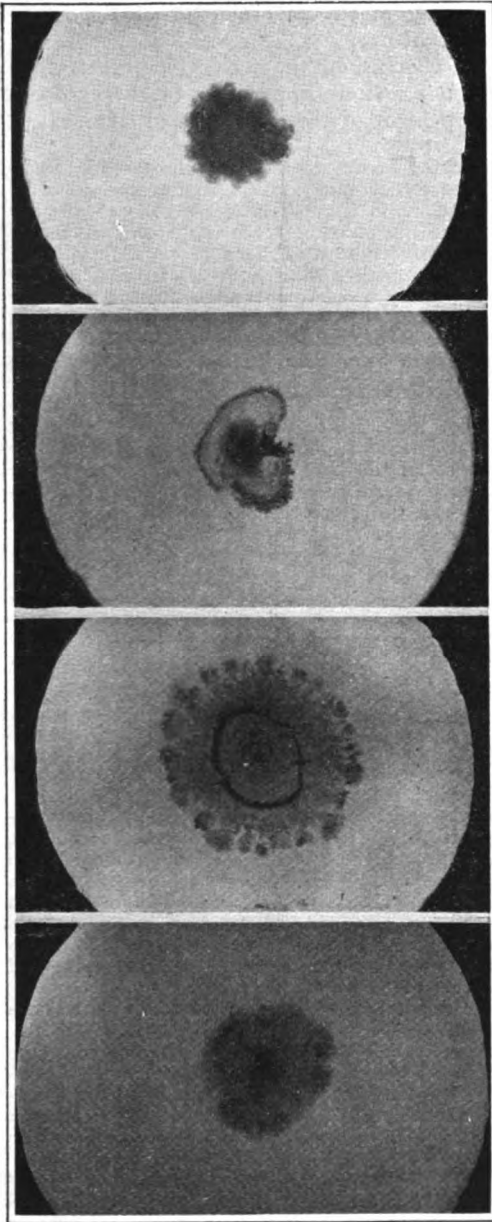
AT the American Museum of Natural History, in New York City, you may see skeletons of contemporary whales and prehistoric dinosaurs. You may see marvelously lifelike groups of birds and mammals; besides rank on rank of cases filled with beasts, fishes, fowls, and reptiles from every corner of the globe. Admirable, however, as these collections are, they are not essentially dissimilar from what may be found at the National Museum, in Washington, the Field Museum, in Chicago, and many other establishments at home and abroad.

But as an institution that sweeps the whole gamut of life-forms, from whales and "dragons of the prime" down to the typhoid bacillus, "so tiny that 400,000,000 could be packed into a grain of granulated sugar," the American Museum is unique. In the last number of the *American Museum Journal*, Professor C.-E. A. Winslow describes the institution's collection of those smallest and most abundant of living things, the bacteria, which, he says, have never heretofore been honored with the recognition of museum authorities.

The value of this collection is explained by the fact that the discoverer of a new microbe has hitherto been forced to depend for identification

upon comparison with written descriptions unless he could obtain what he wanted from the Kral collection at Vienna, which has never been brought back into a complete condition since Dr. Kral died several years ago. The need for a permanent standard collection of bacterial types has been urgently felt by all workers in this country; and for the last five years this need has been met by the museum of living bacteria, maintained by the Department of Public Health of the American Museum.

Bacteria cannot be dried and put away in trays like bird skins. They are identified, less by their simple structure than by their physiological behavior, by the ferments they produce and the changes set up in the media in which they grow. This collection must be a museum of living specimens and the task involved in bacterial horticulture is no small one. Most bacteria grow on a jelly made up with meat, peptone and the extract from a Japanese seaweed, agar. Some, however, require very special foods, as variously and exactly compounded as those that are prepared in the diet kitchen of a hospital. Some must have egg; some, blood; some, milk; some, salts of special kinds. Some need air, while others must be cultivated, in tubes from which oxygen has been removed by special chemical means. Some will live for weeks without attention, while others must be transferred to a fresh tube of food jelly every three days. A laboratory helper is busy all the time preparing the culture media for these small but exacting plants, while the bacteriologist in charge is quite fully occupied in transferring them at the proper time and to the proper medium by touching the old growth with the tip of a platinum needle



FOUR COLONIES OF LIVING BACTERIA ON EXHIBITION
AT THE AMERICAN MUSEUM OF NATURAL HISTORY
IN NEW YORK CITY

(Each contains millions of individuals and has grown from an invisible inoculation of the nutrient jelly. In order, from the top, they are: the pink water bacillus, a typical-looking colony, so-called because of the pink pigment it produces when grown on agar jelly; the nitrogen-fixing bacterium, which grows in the soil and assimilates atmospheric nitrogen to serve as food for higher plants; the ray fungus, which produces a cattle disease to which man is also subject; the yellow coccus, a microbe common in the air, which produces a yellow color when grown in a culture medium.)

and transferring an invisible, but potent, inoculum to a new culture tube.

There are now about seven hundred different strains of living bacteria in the museum collec-

tion, representing practically all known types of this diverse group. Bubonic plague has alone been excluded, on account of accidents which have occurred in other laboratories with this peculiarly deadly germ. Typhoid and diphtheria germs, however, are to be found with those of whooping cough and cholera, meningitis and leprosy, influenza and pneumonia and a dozen more of such pathogenic forms. The original strain of tubercle bacillus isolated by Robert Koch is there, with one of the most recently discovered of disease germs, isolated by Plotz and believed by him to be the cause of typhus fever. In the collection also are the bacteria which cause plant diseases and those which decompose foods. There are strains of the Bulgarian bacillus which makes buttermilk and the lactic acid bacteria utilized by the tanner. One germ that infects sugar cane came from Louisiana and another was found fixing nitrogen in the soil of a bean field in the Middle West.

The keeping of records incident to the maintenance of this collection is in itself no light task. For each of the nearly seven hundred types there is a history card with a serial number on which every single transfer to a fresh tube is entered.

To the casual observer this remarkable collection consists merely of several rows of test-tubes, each containing a sort of jelly. On the slanting surface of the jelly is seen what looks like a smear of whitish or yellowish paste, or a wrinkled mass of moist brown paper. The smear or the wrinkled mass is, in fact, a colony of millions of microbes.

The main object of the bacterial collection is to furnish standard types for the use of teachers and investigators in other bacteriological laboratories throughout the country. It has been the policy of the museum to distribute subcultures from our strains as widely as possible to all responsible persons and in all cases without charge. Disease germs are, of course, carefully guarded, being sent only to laboratories of known standing so that they may not get into the hands of unauthorized persons, while special "teaching sets" of typical non-pathogenic forms are sent to the smaller colleges and normal schools for use in class work. . . . Every university and health department of importance in the field of bacteriological teaching or research in the United States or Canada depends upon our service at the present time; and cultures have been sent to Cuba, to Austria, to England and to South Africa.

Many of the cultures which go out are used for teaching purposes as is shown by the great increase of demands in September and January. It is difficult to overestimate the value of such a service as this to colleges and medical schools which have no facilities for keeping bacterial cultures in condition throughout the year.

Even more important, however, are the facilities which the museum collection offers to the investigator. Systematic bacteriology a decade ago was in a pre-Linnean stage; but it has developed rapidly in recent years; and scarcely a paper upon bacterial classification can be found in which the types sent out from the American Museum do not play a primary part.

WOMEN IN THE KRUPP WORKS

THE changes in social and industrial conditions brought about by the great European War are nowhere more strikingly exhibited than in a recent article in the *Engineer* (London) from its Swiss correspondent dated at Berne, June 8th, and describing the war work of women in the famous Krupp shops at Essen, Germany. These works have already been described in the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*,¹ whose readers also are familiar with the activities of women in industry in the various belligerent nations of Europe, so that a further discussion of the changed conditions due to the war is not without interest.

On August 1, 1914, the Krupp works gave employment to 36,880 men and 1241 women, the latter exclusively in such capacities as charwomen or saleswomen or assistants in the various shops and other establishments supplying the Krupp workmen. By April 1st, 1916, the number of women had increased to 13,023, mostly in the ammunition departments, and the number of men had increased to 55,949. By the summer of 1916 it was believed that over 14,000 women were employed. In 1914, 8114 of the Krupp male employees were called to military service, and in 1915 7500, the total number of men and women employed on April 1 being 68,972.

This force worked in two shifts of twelve hours each, with an hour and a half for meals. These long hours of labor, enforced conditions of military necessity, and without doubt poor and insufficient food have had most serious effect on the work people, especially the women, and there has been an extraordinary amount of sickness. Sickness among the female employees in 1915 amounted to 76.60 per cent. and among the males to 62.31 per cent., with an average duration of 15.18 days for the men and 12.02 days for the women, though it must be said that these average times were less in 1915 than for three previous years. This, however, was explained by the fact of the stressed conditions of living no less than manufacturing demands from the war office, so that usually none went on the sick list until absolutely compelled. This is further borne out by the mortality figures, which were 5.84 per thousand in 1915 for the sick fund members, as compared with 4.12 in 1914.

Many of the women employees were either the widows or wives of soldiers serving at

the front and having dependent children, and their employment was the sole source of support of a number of persons, and in addition to the Krupp works women were being generally employed in Germany. In some machine shops and manufacturing plants as many as 80 per cent. of the operatives are women.

The women workers in the Krupp works and other ammunition factories and machine shops are supplied with special costumes designed to permit the greatest freedom of movement and not endanger their lives by catching in the machinery. Such dress includes knickerbockers and leggings in a single garment, worn with a loose sack coat coming down over the hips and worn either open or closed, or sleeveless overalls covering body and legs, or special upper garments for women where special ease of movement seems to be required for the upper part of the body.

The success of women in industry in Germany has led to a movement in favor of compulsory government service for women analogous to military service for men, required of all except those physically incapacitated or prevented by motherhood. Yet this participation of women in industry has been attended by disadvantages, for it is claimed that so apt have the women proved at their work that with small wages their labor has been exploited, and many married women claim that with the long hours of employment, six a. m. to six p. m., and their release from labor only towards the late evening, after there is virtually nothing left in the markets to purchase, they cannot make adequate provision for their families. Another complaint is that soldiers' widows are taxed on their pensions and thus are in a worse situation than the soldiers' wives, to whom an allowance is also made.

Furthermore, considerable disquietude is being produced by the employment of women in ammunition works and mines at small wages, where the corporations are reputed to be making vast profits. The twenty-six leading German mining companies showed an aggregate surplus for the last quarter of 1915 of 13,868,377 marks (about \$3,500,000) as compared with 7,158,823 marks in the first quarter. Naturally there has been a scarcity of labor, which has been met by the employment of women, and also by the employment of prisoners of war, of whom there are said to be almost a million in Ger-

¹ June, 1915; p. 719.

many; but it has been a notable fact that labor costs have only increased about 12 per cent. in comparison with a vastly greater output and greater profits.

Excellent performances of women are reported also from the manufacturing industries of Great Britain and other European countries and the facts brought out by the *Engineer's* correspondent emphasize further the changes in industry and also the future

changes wrought by the war. With women even excelling men in the use of automatic machinery, it is intensely probable that they will play a still more important part in manufacturing, and a considerable readjustment of social conditions must ensue. However that may be, it is undeniable that in Europe shop and home have experienced a revolution of ideas and methods no less than on the battlefield and the high seas.

A NON-EXPLOSIVE SUBSTITUTE FOR CELLULOID

A NEW plastic substance, very similar to celluloid, and adapted to many of the purposes of that useful material, has recently been patented by a German inventor, Dr. A. Eichrengrün, and is being made by a Cologne company which manufactures explosives.

The new substance exists in two forms, a solid and a varnish, known as cellon and cellon lacquer. While resembling celluloid in physical properties and behavior, cellon differs from the former in chemical composition, since it contains neither nitrocellulose nor camphor, but is composed of acetyl hydro cellulose combined with a softening material.

It is made in colorless sheets or panes of glass-like appearance, and also in white, black, or colored plates, rods, or tubes. These are very like celluloid, but do not possess the highly inflammable or explosive character of that substance, since (according to kind and color) they are either not combustible or possess only the degree of combustibility of hard rubber.

We take from the *Elektrotechnische Zeitschrift* (Berlin) the following description:

In insulating power and workability cellon (especially the particular variety meant for electro technical purposes and known as "hard cellon"), closely resembles hard rubber, but without its brittleness. In contrast to the latter, the manipulation of cellon is facilitated by the fact that it can be softened by heating with dry heat in the oven or with open flame, or by being briefly dipped into water at a temperature of 70 to 80 degrees Centigrade, and can then be bent or shaped.

Another great advantage of cellon is that two pieces of it can be indissolubly united by the simple expedient of smearing the edges to be applied with a suitable solvent or with cellon lacquer, a feat which is far more difficult with hard rubber, and which obviously

aids various processes of manufacture and repair. The following table shows its degree of resistance to penetration or "piercing":

* Thickness of plate—Piercing tension.			
0.2	millimeters	13,200 volts
0.35	"	22,000 "
0.45	"	25,000 "
1.00	"	26,000 "
1.30	"	31,000 "
2.00	"	35,000 "

The possibility of uniting layers of cellon is valuable when utilizing cellonized fabrics or papers in place of ordinary insulating linen, silk, etc., for while the latter will not stick together the former can easily be made to do so simply smearing the edges to be united with a solvent as described above. They may be thus united with each other or with their underlay so as to have an absolutely air-tight and water-tight joining.

The various cellon lacquers used for impregnating or for pasting together are made by dissolving cellon in divers solvents; they vary in viscosity, and in the degree of hardness or softness on being dried, according to the nature of the solvent and of the kind of cellon. All cellon lacquers have the common property (in contrast to the usual insulating lacquers and the spirit-lacquers), of drying in the cold without any heating, and of thus forming tough continuous cellon films on the lacquered machine-parts or other objects, which films are resistant not only to water, but to oils, fats, petroleum and benzine as well as to gases, as, for example, ammonia. Cellon lacquer has also been employed recently as a rust preventive, especially when united with the tough "cellon-cement" for filling out the hollow spaces of rivet-joiners, bell-clamps, etc., for protection against penetration by damp.

The cellon lacquer is made in three grades of hardness: 1. Soft lacquer, which, on the evaporation of the solvent, forms flexible sheets or layers. It can be used to impregnate paper, fabrics, woven coverings, etc. 2. Medium hard lacquer which corresponds to cellon in plate form and can be manipulated by putting on with a brush spraying, dipping or pouring. 3. Hard lacquers, which yield coatings of high insulating value and firmness, similar to hard rubber. They are employed to impregnate covered wires and for making hard and solid outer coatings on objects already impregnated with soft lacquer.

A SUBSTITUTE FOR JUTE

THE heavy bags which are used for packing such commodities as sugar, coffee, grain, cotton, and wool are chiefly made from jute, most of which comes from India, whose annual exports of this material are said to comprise a billion yards of cloth and over a third of a billion bags, besides large quantities of jute yarn and raw jute.

The marked advance in price because of the great war has given an impetus in various places to the search for a satisfactory substitute. One such comes from the plant called the *urena lobata*, which is very widespread, being found in warm regions throughout the entire world. Its fiber is very similar to that of jute, though shorter.

According to *Die Umschau* (Frankfort) this fiber has long been known in Brazil under the name of Aramina Guaxima, being used for the making of ropes and latterly of sacking.

In India the plant grows wild and it is also used there for various purposes. In Madagascar it is found in great quantity, and steps are now being taken to promote its growth on a larger scale and by scientific methods. Thus far it has been mainly employed for the manufacture of sacking, and the government of the colony has now laid a tax upon the import of jute-sacks, 2,000,000 of which per year are imported into Madagascar. It is also believed that there is a possibility of obtaining fibers from the *urena lobata*, which can be utilized for fabrics other than sacking.

DEMOCRATIC ASPECTS OF UNIVERSAL MILITARY SERVICE

WE are accustomed to arguments for universal military service that approach the subject from the standpoint of the comparative military value to a nation, and in somewhat lesser measure do we hear and read of the physical benefit of such a system to an individual. That there are other considerations and advantages is the conclusion of Prof. Munroe Smith (Columbia), in one of the papers on military training read at the annual meeting of the Academy of Political Science of New York and now printed in the *Proceedings* of the Academy.

A hired army is a relic of the period of monarchic absolutism, and even the volunteer system makes for aristocracy. Professor Smith cites the "one-year volunteers" of the German army, who because of financial and educational advantages quickly become officers in the reserve. He also mentions the veterans of our own wars, who not only receive special honor and preference but also transmit credit and social distinction to their descendants, through membership in various societies.

The most serious objection to relying upon volunteer armies, declares Professor Smith, is neither political nor military, but social; and the greatest evil of the volunteer system is that "it slays or maims those who are most energetic and enterprising, who have the highest courage and the warmest devotion to their country, while it spares the inert, the

timid, and the selfish. If modern war makes in any case for the survival of the physically unfit, modern war waged by volunteer armies makes for the survival of the socially unfit."

Professor Smith holds that universal military service is essentially the democratic system; for democracy means equality of duties as well as equality of rights. Not only is it the system for a democracy, but it also tends to create democracies and to place greater political power in the hands of the people.

The establishment of universal military service in European monarchies has not been followed by an increase of royal power; the tendency has been toward more democratic government. In all these states, not excepting Russia, the people have to-day some voice in determining the laws and policies of the country; and it looks as if, broadly speaking, the imposition of the duty of military service upon every able-bodied male citizen had forced the monarchic and aristocratic elements to concede to the people some measure of political rights. They had to admit that the men who are to fight for a country ought to have something to say about its government.

All of Professor Smith's researches and thought on this subject convince him that "the defense of the country must, on democratic principles, be secured through universal military service; and if universal military service is to be enforced, we must have universal—that is to say, compulsory—military training."

INTENSIVE RED LIGHT AND TUBERCULOSIS

FOR several years the public has grown increasingly familiar with various forms of photo therapy, or "light-cure." The subject is however by no means exhausted. For the past two years a member of the medicinal clinic of the University of Bonn, Dr. Gerhartz, has been studying the effect of red rays on patients afflicted with severe cases of tuberculosis of the lungs and larynx. The very remarkable results obtained in the cases of nineteen invalids of this sort are reported in the Munich *Medizinische Wochenschrift*. Direct light from an arc-light, rich in red rays, was used in some cases; at times pure red neon light was employed.

Of the sixteen severe tuberculosis cases in which the thorax was thus treated, fourteen died. In all the cases the progress of the lung degeneration was diminished during the period of treatment. In ten cases a recession was noted. No enlargement of hollow spaces in the lungs

was observed, and no new hollow spaces were formed. No serious hemorrhages occurred. There was a gain in weight. Coughing and night sweats decreased. The rattling sound diminished, and the daily quantity of sputum was decreased. But the sputum was not free of bacillæ. In every case the temperature fell, in six cases down to the normal. Rapidity of pulse and of respiration was also lowered except in three cases.

Without doubt phenomena occurred in all cases during this treatment of the chest by red rays which indicate the beginning of an improvement in the affection of the lungs and a favorable reaction upon the general condition dependent thereon. . . . Animal experiments on sixty-five guinea pigs also indicated an objective improvement.

In spite of these excellent results, Dr. Gerhartz is very cautious in his claims for this treatment, and expresses the desire that it be widely tested before being accepted as a curative.

MUSIC'S SERVICE TO RELIGION

PLACE of honor in the current number of the *Musical Quarterly* (New York) is given to an interesting and valuable article on "Music as an Expression of Religious Feeling," by George Whitfield Andrews of Oberlin. Music born of intelligence and imagination and fired by emotion has rare power to create emotional states; to cause an unwonted stirring of the feelings reacting upon the whole range of intellectual and spiritual capacity. It probably affects the emotional nature more deeply than other arts, while in universality of appeal it far surpasses them. Accepting these characteristics of the musical art as true, Mr. Andrews says, its age-long service in religious worship is at once understood.

What union more natural, he asks, than that between the spiritual things which are "spiritually discerned" and the art whose real being must be felt, must be apprehended, rather than heard merely by the ear, or described in halting words. Marvelous as is the expressive quality of rightly chosen language, men are few who do not sometimes sing. And so, the Christian church has been, is, and will be, a singing church. The question "What has the Church sung" is richly answered by the history of the liturgi-

cal churches. To the query "What should the Church sing?" Mr. Andrews answers:

Music born of intelligence and imagination and fired by religious emotion is music that should be sung in Christian worship. Its style will, nay must vary, for to the widely differing groups of believers their songs must appear as a true and natural utterance of their own religious feeling. But it is true that the more perfectly these songs embody universal, unchanging emotional truth the less we make account of their outward dress. Truth lies at the very foundation of Christian worship, and the songs that truly voice the emotional experience of sincere souls in their religious life are fit for the use of the Church. There is something sacred, even religious about all the beauty of sound and of sight with which God had surrounded us, and the presence or absence of the label "Church Music" is of little moment. If the composer was guided in his choice of tonal material by an esthetic and spiritual vision and refused to be satisfied until his work showed power to move the hearts of hearers and also for their good, then such music is fit for the Church because it is true and its influence is wholesome.

It would seem that musical works inspired by religious emotion should be the greatest of all, and in proof of this the writer names such religious masterpieces as Bach's "B minor Mass," Mendelssohn's "Elijah," Handel's "Messiah," Haydn's

"Creation," Mozart's "Requiem," Elgar's "Dream of Gerontius," César Franck's "The Beatitudes," with which he classes Beethoven's "Ninth Symphony," with its choral conclusion," which can hardly be called anything less than religious." While our non-liturgical churches have made but slight additions to the general stock, speaking comparatively, Mr. Andrews points out that there have been and are musicians of ability and accomplishment in the non-liturgical churches, but there has not been the attainment of a distinct style nor the accumulation of a great wealth of material as in the case of the other religious bodies.

One cannot read the Psalms without the conviction which grows with every repetition that here is the poetic voicing of the deepest, highest and most intense experiences possible to the soul of man. They were intended for singing, and from the day of their use in the Jewish temple until now they have been the foundation of very many of our sublimest musical productions.

It must not be overlooked that only the highest intelligence, the most vivid imagination and the deepest inspiration can bring forth works of the first order. If there is the commonplace to be found in church music its cause is to be discovered in the human agent and not in the lack of inspiring force in religious feeling.

He holds that church music to-day should accomplish just what it has done in past generations: moving upon human feeling, quickening the powers of the intellect, and inclining the will to make choice. "This inmost potentiality of music is not easily located, for music is nothing other than sound and movement combined according to nat-

ural and esthetic law, yet the sound and movement have no message unless the composer had a vision of truth and beauty leading him to choose certain sounds and certain movements and unite them in certain ways resulting in an utterance of blessing to him who has the ability to receive it." He is very sure that it is not necessary to have a critical knowledge of music in order to feel the majesty, the nobleness, the devotion, the tenderness, the sorrow and the whole range of the soul's experience which music so wonderfully voices. But knowledge does mean more perfect insight, and should mean fuller sympathy.

The conclusion then is that church music ought to be written by men of large intellectual and spiritual life, with hearts sympathetic and responsive, having the temper of the prophet who is first a beholder of visions and revelations and then an able, capable and faithful agent in conveying them to men for their edification. Thousands of pages of church music have been written by just such men.

But the whole duty is not the musician's. The Church also has an obligation. Is the Church requiring of her musical servants the very best they can give? this writer asks.

Is there no danger that they will be asked to cater to the passing fancy regardless of the real quality of that which thus pleases. Pleasure is certainly not the important end of public worship, even if it may be in the better sense a permissible accompaniment. Preaching is for the warning, the enlightenment, the upbuilding of hearers, and music has absolutely no place in the Christian church unless it can in any way enforce the message of the minister. . . .

LITERATURE AFTER THE WAR

FROM far-away Uruguay comes a stimulating view of the effect which the present European war will have upon literature. Writing in *La Nota* (Montevideo), Mr. Rodo declares that while there may be a production of the literature of heroism, patriotism, and the vainglory of war as an immediate but transitory effect of the reaction of war on the human imagination, yet literary evolution will not continue to be governed by these characteristics.

It is probable, on the contrary, that the dominating influence will be what may be called the social and spiritual achievement of the war. The war will bring about the renovation of the literary ideal, but not for the purpose of expressing itself in its aspects of glory and pride. . . . The profound disturbance which it will

introduce into the laws of international society, into political institutions, into the social forms which it will radically modify, will inevitably react on the spiritual life, and give birth to new forms of expression for new states of consciousness.

The war will bring about this spiritual renewal, thinks Mr. Rodo, because events "so extraordinary, so gigantic, so terrible" cannot pass without leaving traces on the human imagination of men; but the really fecund inspiration which will spring therefrom will proceed from its heart-searching aspects. Genius will be roused "not by radiant victories, nor by standards billowing in the wind, nor by the glory of heroes, but far rather by the frightful heritage of crimes, of devastation, and of misery."

FALL ANNOUNCEMENTS OF BOOKS

THE fall announcements of books indicate a very wide range of choices of books that are intrinsically fine and have permanent values. Among the volumes of biography soon to appear are "The Life of John Marshall," by Ex-Senator Albert J. Beveridge; a life of Booker T. Washington, by Lyman Beecher Stowe and Emmet Scott; "The Life of John Fiske," by John Spencer Clark; "An O. Henry Biography," by C. Alphonso Smith; "The Life of Ulysses S. Grant," by Louis Coolidge; a critical study of "Henry Thoreau," by Mark Van Doren; Judge Ransom's "Charles E. Hughes, the Statesman." Other books that may not be strictly classed as biography but possess similar characteristics are: "How We Elected Lincoln," by Judge Abram Dittenhoefer, a campaigner for Abraham Lincoln in 1860; "The Story of the Battle Hymn of the Republic," by Florence Howe Hall; "Leading Events in American Diplomacy," selected by Ripley Hitchcock from the "American Nation"; a William Dean Howells book, "Years of My Youth"; "The Art of Rodin, With Leaves from His Notebook," compiled by Judith Cladel, and "Letters of Richard Watson Gilder," edited by Rosamund Gilder.

Books that deal with interesting facts and conditions of American life include "America and the New Epoch," by Charles P. Steinmetz; "The Gary Plan: The Conflict Between the Old and the New in Education," by Alice Fernandez; and "The Tide of Immigration," by Frank Julian Warner.

Among the books offered on the problems of our foreign relations are: "The Japanese Crisis," by James A. B. Sherer; "Our Eastern Question," by Thomas F. Millard, and "Caribbean Interests of the United States," by Chester Lloyd Jones. "Benighted Mexico," by Randolph W. Smith, offers a first-hand study of conditions in that country. Maurice Maeterlinck's new book, "The Wrack of the Storm," deals with Belgium and the war; "The Self-Discovery of Russia," by Professor J. Y. Simpson, is a volume of importance, and also Dr. William L. Mallabar's "Medical History of the Great War," and "The War and Humanity," by James M. Beck.

Out-of-door books include "The Moose Book," by Samuel Merrill; "Tales of the Pampas," by W. H. Hudson, and the journal of John Muir of his tramp from Indiana to Florida in 1867, "A Thousand Mile Walk."

Books that present interesting pictures of foreign countries are "With the Turks in Palestine," by Alexander Aaronsohn; "Tramping Through Mexico, Guatemala and Honduras," by Harry A. Franck; "Hawaii," by Katherine Fuller Gerould, and "El Supremo," a historical romance of South America by Edward Lucas White, and "The Taming of Calinga," a story of the Philippines under Spanish rule, by C. L. Carlsen; "A Slav Soul and Other Tales," by Alexander

Kuprin; and "The Wonderful Year," by William J. Locke.

Among the excellent translations we have "The Russian School of Painting," by Alexander Benois; Selma Lagerlof's new romance "The Emperor of Portugalia."

The publications of poetry include "The Unpublished Poems of John Hay"; "The Great Valley," by Edgar Lee Masters, and William Butler Yeats' book of new poems, "Responsibilities"; Amy Lowell's "Men, Women and Ghosts," and John G. Neuhardt's "The Fugitive Lure."

In catalogues of important works of fiction there are listed: "The World For Sale," a story of the Canadian Northwest, by Sir Gilbert Parker; "The Winged Victory," by Sarah Grand; "Witte Arrives," a Jewish immigrant story by Elias Tobenkin; "The Heart of Rachael," by Kathleen Norris; the first novel by Ernest Thompson Seton, "The Preacher of Cedar Mountain"; a novel begun and planned by the late F. Hopkinson Smith, "Enoch Crane"; "Multitude and Solitude," an American edition of an early novel by John Masfield; "The Invisible Balance Sheet," a new novel by Katrina Trask; a new novel by H. G. Wells, "Mr. Britling Sees It Through," and "The Leatherstocking God," by William Dean Howells.

Among the offerings of stories are "The Great Push," a war tale by Patrick Macgill; "The Turtles of Tasman," by Jack London; Sir Rabindranath Tagore's book of short stories, "The Fruit Gathering"; "Head Winds," a collection of stories by James B. Connolly; a collection of tales by Edith Wharton, "Xingu and Other Tales"; "Penrod and Sam," a new series by Booth Tarkington; a story of the supernatural, "Julius Levalloin," by Algernon Blackwood; "Bodbank," by Richard Washburn Child, tales of a Mississippi River town in the corn belt of Illinois; "The Mysterious Stranger," a posthumous story by Mark Twain; and "The Little Hunchback Zia," by Frances Hodgson Burnett.

Miscellaneous works include: "The Golden Book of Dutch Navigators," by Hendrik Willem van Loon; "Buddha and the Gospel of Buddhism," by Dr. Ananda Coomaraswamy; "The Wonder of Work," a book of pictures with captions by Joseph Pennell; "The Intelligence of Woman," feminist essays by W. L. George; "Society's Misfits," by Madeline Z. Doty, a book on what goes on inside prisons and reformatories; George Moore's life of Christ entitled "The Brook Kerith"; "The Layman's Book of Medicine," by Richard C. Cabot; and "Gleanings From Old Shaker Journals," compiled by Clara Endicott Sears; Ellen Key's new book "War, Peace and The Future," and "The Advance of the English Novel," by Professor William Lyon Phelps; "Ivory and the Elephant," by George Frederick Kunz; "Aspects of English Poetry," by Alfred Noyes, and "Our Hispanic Southwest," by Ernest Peixotto.

THE NEW BOOKS

SOCIOLOGY AND POLITICS

"POVERTY AND SOCIAL PROGRESS,"¹ by

Maurice Parmelee, is a most useful and educative book. It would be well if every serious-minded person interested in social welfare would read this calm, impartial survey of the problems of poverty, and learn from it that poverty is not a spontaneous phenomenon, and that it could be practically wiped out by the reorganization of society. The book is offered for use as a text for college courses on charities, poverty, pauperism, dependency, and the like, but its most useful place is in the hands of the worker, the producer, the business man and woman, the serious shapers and makers of the present economic state of society. The chapters discuss and present data on the organization of society, pathological social conditions, biological factors, pathology of mind and body, distribution of wealth and incomes, national wealth and income, unemployment, standards of living, the extent of poverty, the sweating system, conditions of labor as causes of poverty, political maladjustment. On the side of remedial and preventive projects there are the various humanitarian and philanthropic measures, social insurance and pensions, redistribution of wealth, political reorganization and industrial democracy, together with many other ideas that develop the conception of a society inspired by humanitarian and democratic ideals, that involves on the political side self-government of a high moral order, and on the economic side the efficient organization of the productive forces so that each member of society will be contributing his fair share of the kind of labor which he is best fitted to perform.

If war could be ended by reasonableness, Professor Edward Krehbiel's handbook, "Nationalism, War, and Society,"² would end it. The book presents a study of nationalism and its concomitant, war, in their relation to civilization; and of the fundamentals and the progress of the opposition to war. The aim of the book is frankly the dissemination of ideas and ideals which shall make for the reduction of war. The author acknowledges the assistance of Dr. David Starr Jordan, Dr. John Mez, and Dr. Denys P. Myers. Norman Angell has written an introduction of twenty pages that punctures some of the biological arguments against the probable continuance of wars. Whether these arguments are or are not fallacious depends entirely upon the reader's point of view. They are very interesting reading, however, and the essence of the preface and of Professor Krehbiel's illuminating handbook is the fact that, shirk the question of war to-day if we will, we shall certainly have to face it to-morrow, and we must now decide whether force is to be the instrument of defense or of suicide. If it is Utopian, he says, to concern ourselves

with preparation for coöperation, brotherhood, and peace by a reconstruction of internal and international American policy, then indeed the choice before us is "Utopia or Hell."

"Society and Prisons,"³ by Thomas Mott Osborne, contains the Yale lectures on the responsibilities of citizenship. They are stirring condemnations, based on personal investigation, of the modern prison system and the usual attitude of the public toward the man in prison and the man who has "done time." Mr. Osborne does not uphold a sentimental attitude toward criminals. His sympathy is human and genuine, but there are no paragraphs of mawkish sentiment in his book. His arraignment of the present prison system is that it does not cleanse the community of crime or cure the criminal. Under the old system, when two hundred offenses were punishable by hanging, "the criminal did not return to society to commit new offenses—to begin an endless chain of recurring crime and reimprisonment. . . . While it is difficult, if not impossible, to get accurate statistics in this as in other prison matters, it is estimated that two-thirds of the men in our State prisons are recidivists. I believe this estimate is low for New York State; and while the figures will vary in different localities, I should be surprised if the prison population of the country at large did not include more than 65 per cent. of recidivists."

Mr. Osborne's basic tenets are:

There is no such thing as a criminal type, but there is a prison type.

Crime in its various forms is largely spiritual.

The state of our prison system is due to the indifference of society to the wards of the State.

The duties and understanding of Christian citizenship will apply democracy even to the prisons.

The Welfare System is simply training in democracy, applied Christianity, the Golden Rule.

The lectures contain an account of Mr. Osborne's experimental incarceration at Auburn prison and a sketch of the life of Canada Blackie, who lent Mr. Osborne valuable assistance in organizing the Welfare League.

Bipin Chandra Pal, a champion of Nationalism in India, offers in "Nationality and Empire,"⁴ a book published at Calcutta, a most excellent running survey of current Indian problems. This book cannot be too highly commended to those who are interested in governmental study. The articles that compose the volume have previously appeared in various Indian reviews. In 1911, the late Mr. W. T. Stead published in the English *Review of Reviews* an interview with Bipin Chandra Pal in which he discussed the possible reconstitution of governmental relations between

¹ Poverty and Social Progress. By Maurice Parmelee. Macmillan. 477 pp. \$1.75.

² Nationalism, War, and Society. By Edward Krehbiel. Macmillan. 276 pp.

³ Society and Prisons. By Thomas Mott Osborne. Yale University Press. 246 pp. \$1.35.

⁴ Nationality and Empire. By Bipin Chandra Pal. Thacker Spink Co., Calcutta, India. 416 pp. \$1 net.

Great Britain and India on the basis of the recognition of India as a free and equal partner, and advised the reconstitution of the British Empire on the basis of free coöperative partnership between her dependencies, India, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. While this book is occupied in the main with the various aspects of the Indian idea of this co-partnership as regards the Indian Empire, in accordance with the demands of Indian Nationalism, the author goes far enough to say that the true empire idea is in fact not a political but a social idea, social evolution is its ultimate end. The moral idea of an Empire is the large ground it offers for human fellowship. Therefore Imperialism, with freedom, offers for India a higher ideal than Nationalism, and in consideration of her internal problems and threatened perils from other nations, much the wisest solution for the ever outcropping political unrest. Federalism is the only salvation for India, and the only possible way in which, after the war, the integrity of the British Empire can be maintained.

Seymour Deming's spirited arraignment of society. "From Doomsday to Kingdom Come,"¹ reminds us that the origins of war are not foreign but domestic; they are rooted in class rule, and it is every man's business to expose class rule and help the working man to conquer the world by means of honest, well-paid labor, which shall bring about a self-impelled social democratization. And in the end "Kingdom Come" is not an ideal society. It is the truth of the Hegelian theory, that life is in the effort, in the struggle, inasmuch as the price of any good is struggle everlasting. A readable book, a piquant bit of the urge toward true democracy.

Every person interested in the welfare of children should own "The Child in Human Progress,"² by George Henry Payne, a book that shows the status of the child from prehistoric times to the present day. Dr. Jacobi, who has written the preface, declares that no teacher, medical practitioner, historian, or pediatricist should be without it. It is the only book of its kind published.

PHILOSOPHY

IN "Bergson and Religion,"³ Professor Lucius Hopkins Miller, of Princeton, attempts to assess the religious value of Bergson's teaching. Opinions will necessarily vary as to the religious value of Bergsonianism according to the various conceptions of religion, but Professor Miller's enthusiastic and conscientious estimate of the result for religion of Bergson's philosophy is of importance and interest. And he affirms without fear of contradiction that Bergson is the literary exponent of the forces that are just now virile and constructive in France.

To the reasoning mind Bergson gives a basis for faith; to the doubtful he gives encouragement to believe. The materialist can identify, if he so choose, the "Vital Impulse" of Bergson with God. His "intuition" is clearly allied to faith and to all he reveals—even as did the Nazarene—the possibility of our having "life more abundantly." This work is a distinct creation in itself, one that will attract all classes of readers for its sound reasoning, clarity, and stimulating literary style.

The May number of the *Philosophical Review*⁴ is given up to papers by writers who are admirers of the philosophical work of the distinguished American philosopher Josiah Royce, but who were not for one reason or another able to participate in the original celebration of Professor Royce's sixtieth birthday which took place last year at the University of Pennsylvania and in New York. Several of these writers have been

his pupils, and while in hardly any case has there been an actual adoption by them of his theories in their entirety, the spirit of loyalty characterizes them as a whole. Notable among these papers are: "The Significance of His Work in Philosophy," "The Foundation in Royce's Philosophy for Christian Theism," "Royce's Interpretation of Christianity," "Love and Loyalty," and "Royce's Idealism as a Philosophy of Education." Richard Cabot contributes an article on "Royce as a Teacher," a tribute to his kindness, his interest, and his unflinching interest in the "lame ducks." Other articles discuss the technical points of the Roycean philosophical system.

"Indian Thought, Past, and Present,"⁵ by R. W. Frazer, is a notable and erudite account of Indian thought in its infiltrations through the social and religious life of India and of its effect upon orthodox Hindus. Mr. Frazer holds that if we are to approach the idea of a world federation, we must first be familiar with the underlying stratum of thought of each race and nation, how they have attempted to solve the problem of the universe. This volume begins with a study of the Vedas and continues the tracing of hereditary currents through the Brahmanas, the Upanishads, Vedanta, Sankya or the world as matter; Vaiseshika and Nyaya, or the world as atoms, Yoga, asceticism, Buddhism, Hinduism, on to present Indian thought and a chapter on the past and present position of Woman in India. The book is beautifully illustrated. Many of the cuts are photographed from the art collection of Dr. Ananda Coomaraswamy, who has been recently heard on the lecture platform in this country. A more clear or succinct account of Indian thought cannot be obtained.

¹ From Doomsday to Kingdom Come. By Seymour Deming. Small, Maynard. 110 pp. 50 cents.

² The Child in Human Progress. By George Henry Payne. Putnams. Ill. 400 pp. \$2.50.

³ Bergson and Religion. By Lucius Hopkins Miller. 286 pp. \$1.50.

⁴ The Philosophical Review (May, 1916). Longmans, Green. 60 cents.

⁵ Indian Thought, Past and Present. By R. W. Frazer. Stokes. 339 pp.

ESSAYS AND CRITICISM

IT is a piece of fine irony that Robert Southey should be universally remembered only by the "Story of the Three Bears." His expectation that he would be blest and remembered by all who love to tell stories to children has been realized, but the bulk of his literary fame and high pretensions has mostly gone the way of all that's mortal. It is most agreeable, however, to find among the new publications a book of the "Select Prose of Robert Southey."¹ The selections have been well chosen and will find their audience. They are those charming, light, readable parts of Southey's more popular works wherein he has permitted his inventive fancy to play gracefully in numerous delightful episodes. Selections from the "Lake Country," "The Doctor," "The Life of Bayard," "The Peninsular War," and "Opinions and Reflections from the Common-place Books" are included among other selections.

Most people who have seen Maeterlinck's "Bluebird" played in this country or glimpsed the shadowy beauty of "Peleas and Melisande" want to know all about the poet-dramatist. Mr. MacDonald Clark has written a searching study of the man and a sympathetic estimate of his work, genius, and influence in the literary world for the past generation.² Maeterlinck himself has written of the essay: "It is by far the most complete, thorough, and conscientious study yet devoted to me. I have admired the independence, the sureness, the sense of balance of thought that sometimes towers above its subject. And I feel proud to have been the subject of a work of this intellectual vigor." Mr. Clark treats of Maeterlinck's works in detail, then follows the discussion of Maeterlinck the man, the effect of the mixture of races in his blood, of early surroundings, love of solitude and simplicity, outdoor life,

and progressivism. He does not hold Maeterlinck to be the disciple of any philosopher. He is rather a powerful, original, spiritual force seizing upon the best in both philosophy and religion and mingling the whole into a mystical doctrine of the preëminence of beauty and the glory of the inner life of the soul. For richness of style, vocabulary, and true interpretative power this book rises far above even the exceptional works of its kind.

Stephen Leacock's latest book, "Essays and Literary Studies,"³ presents the movements of modern thought in a terse manner enlivened by a merry wit and the skilful clothing of old argument in new forms. Especially delightful are the essays, "The Apology of a Professor," a spirited defense of the men who infuse leaven into our present-day life of commercialism; "American Humor," an analysis of the humor of American writers as it bears relation to the history of the American people; and "The Woman Question," a blow at the theories of Feminism.

"Browning Studies," by Vernon C. Harrington,⁴ are intended as an introduction to Browning's best work, for those who are not familiar with his poetry. The author emphasizes the great help the earnest student can find in Browning in the difficult art of living.

"The Elements of Style," an introduction to literary criticism, by David Watson Rannic,⁵ covers its chosen field in a most scholarly fashion. The various literary forms are skilfully analyzed and illustrative quotations given from famous authors. It is a most excellent volume for students of literature and ambitious writers.

SCIENTIFIC WORKS

"AN INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY OF VARIABLE STARS,"⁶ by Caroline E. Furness, Ph.D., is one of a collection of notable volumes by Vassar alumnæ published in commemoration of the fiftieth anniversary of America's oldest college for women. It is offered with the purpose of presenting in a clear and simple form the physical principles upon which many of the instruments and methods of investigation are based—principles such as polarized light, spectrum analysis, the formation of the photographic image and photo-electricity. It is the first general book, suitable alike to students and to the amateur who owns a telescope, that has been published in English. The observation of variable stars was introduced into the program of Vassar College by Mary Whitney in 1901, and the author of this admirable volume

coöperated with her the first few years in giving instruction.

Among recent books presenting that serene, high-minded scholarship that labors for no reward save delight in its own arduous toil, is the Columbian University monograph, "The Origins of the Islamic State."⁷ This work is a translation by Philip Khuri Hitti, the Gustave Gottheil lecturer at Columbia, of the "Kitab Futuh Al-Buldan," an Arabic authority for the period when the Arab state was in the process of formation. The present interest in the Nearer East, and the renewed desire for knowledge of governmental conditions past and present, will commend this volume to the student. The task of making the Arabic text accessible to those who cannot hope to master the Arabic language is one that merits wide appreciation.

¹ Select Prose of Robert Southey. Introduction by Jacob Zeitlin. Macmillan. 436 pp. \$1.50.

² Maurice Maeterlinck. By MacDonald Clark. Frederick A. Stokes. 304 pp. \$2.50.

³ Essays and Literary Studies. By Stephen Leacock. John Lane. 310 pp. \$1.25.

⁴ Browning Studies. By Vernon C. Harrington, Boston. Richard G. Badger. 390 pp. \$1.50.

⁵ The Elements of Style. By David Watson Rannic. Dutton. 312 pp. \$1.50.

⁶ An Introduction to the Study of Variable Stars. By Caroline E. Furness. Houghton, Mifflin. 327 pp. Ill. \$1.75.

⁷ The Origins of the Islamic State. By Philip Khuri Hitti. Longmans, Green. 518 pp.

A series of eight lectures given at the Lowell Institute, Boston, in 1914, under the name of "Sound Analysis," have been rewritten by their author, Professor Dayton Clarence Miller, and published under the title "The Science of Musical Sounds."¹ These lectures, while containing enough elementary materials to interest beginners, give the latest advances of the science. The lectures are accompanied by quantities of illustrations—diagrams and pictures that make experimental work for the student easy to a degree. To anyone interested in this subject Professor Miller's book is invaluable. The chapters cover sound waves, simple harmonic motion, noise and tone, characteristics of tones, methods of recording and photographing sound waves, analysis and synthesis of harmonic curves, influence of horn and diaphragm on sound waves and interpreting sound analysis, tone qualities of musical instruments, and word relations of the art and the science of music.

One question if we have not at least Fabres in the making when one comes upon such a rare and delightful book of nature knowledge as "Texas Nature Observations and Reminiscences,"² a work by Dr. R. Menger, an amateur Texas naturalist. This book is a vivid transcript of the author's impressions covering a space of many years of his personal observations of the living wild things of the Lone Star State and of her fields, plants, and streams. The book has sixteen full-page, half-tone illustrations and numerous decorations made from about 3,600 rattlesnake rattles. In view of the recent interest in the State of Texas because of the encampment of the militia along the Mexican border, this book should find eager readers. A more fascinating book for both old and young, or a better commentary on the excellent results both of knowledge and of mental and physical refreshment following the use of our leisure in the study of the out-of-door world can hardly be imagined.

A FEW RECENT NOVELS

CHARLES MARRIOTT'S "Davenport"³ will please those who like a carefully written mystery story. The question of the duality of the human mind, of the curious intelligence and unexplained fact knowledge sometimes displayed by the subjective mind, will interest students of occult phenomena and believers in spiritualism. Harry Belsire, the son of a Gloucestershire vicar, baffles his close friends by sudden gleams of learning and personality that seem quite apart from his normal intelligence. The explanation of the mystery is withheld until the novelist's art has aroused the reader to a high point of curiosity. The authorship of a series of brilliant articles appearing in local papers signed "J. D." is traced to young Belsire, who has written them with the assistance of a friend and "Planchette" while his mind was functioning as "Davenport." Here the novelist introduces a curious fact familiar to psychologists, the loss of union between the two personalities or the two phases of the one. Belsire loses Davenport, and the question is—how to unite them once more so that the young man may proceed through life mentally a complete individual. This is accomplished in an exquisitely written chapter of great delicacy and charm. One may take the book as a parable if the reader wishes. It is a remarkable work, one that for charm and suggestiveness can hardly be surpassed.

"David Blaize,"⁴ by E. F. Benson, gives us a realistic, jolly picture of English school-boy life which is comparable to Kipling's "Stalky & Co." and Hughes' "Tom Brown's School Days." A happier, more wholesome book could hardly be imagined. We are shown the inner intricacies of the high art of the best English schools, the

art of shaping noble character. There exists the understanding between master and pupil that every offense is condonable save those that involve cleanness of mind and honorable actions.

"Testore,"⁵ the romance of an Italian fiddle-maker, by Pat Candler, gives a narrative of the dreams that came to the buyer of an old violin. They are woven into the life-story of its maker, one Carlo Giuseppe Testore, a fiddle-maker of Milan. If this book is, as it seems, a first novel, it deserves high praise. The romantic atmosphere is well sustained and faults of construction, notably a lack of coördination, and certain gaps in the flow of the narrative, are well nigh lost in the picturing forth of a vivid personality and in the melodic quality of the style.

"The Purple Land,"⁶ an early work of W. H. Hudson, whose idyllic story, "Green Mansions," has had large sales, is reissued in a new edition. It was first published in 1885, in two volumes, under the title of "The Purple Land That England Lost." This land was the "Banda Oriental," the Uruguay of South America, discovered by Magellan in 1500, when he named the hill or mountain which gives its name to the capital "Monte Vidi." This book has a flavor of Robinson Crusoe and the Swiss Family Robinson. It narrates the romantic adventures of Richard Lamb, a young Englishman, in the interior of this wild and then unknown country. It has great fascination and true romantic quality. The unexpected adventures and marvelous escapes of the hero place the reader in the world of long ago when tales of darkest Africa piqued our curiosity, when we believed in Amazons, giants, pygmies, and:

"The Anthropophagi, and men whose heads
Do grow beneath their shoulders."

¹ The Science of Musical Sounds. By Dayton Clarence Miller. Macmillan. 286 pp. \$2.50.

² Texas Nature Observations. By Dr. R. Menger. Guessaz & Ferlet Co., San Antonio, Texas. 323 pp. \$2.

³ Davenport. By Charles Marriott. John Lane. 374 pp. \$1.35.

⁴ David Blaize. By E. F. Benson. Doran. 364 pp.

⁵ Testore. By Pat Candler. Dutton. 264 pp. \$1.35.

⁶ The Purple Land. By W. H. Hudson. E. P. Dutton. 355 pp. \$1.50 net.

BIOGRAPHY AND REMINISCENCE

VOLUME IV. of the Disraeli biography by George Earle Buckle (in succession to W. F. Monypenny), covers the period 1855-1868.¹ The letters of Disraeli to Queen Victoria come to their end in this volume, but there is a wealth of other correspondence and extended comment upon various personages, all of which extends the work beyond the limits of a biography into a history of the times. Palmerston, Derby, Russell, and Gladstone are equally prominent in this volume with the redoubtable "Dizzy." The exposition of the tact and wisdom with which Disraeli led the Queen's Opposition in the House of Commons throughout his waiting years, his final Parliamentary triumph and accession to the Prime Ministry in 1868, fill the record of his public life for this volume. On the personal side there are glimpses of his devoted wife's pride in his conquests, and bits of intimate correspondence that throw a high light of his character. Once when they were both confined to their rooms by illness in the house at Grosvenor Gate they wrote letters to each other every day. Mrs. Disraeli was at this time seventy-five years of age. In Disraeli's notes to her we find the following: "You have sent me the most amusing and charming letter I ever had. It beats Horace Walpole and Madame de Sevigne."

"We have been separated four days and under the same roof. How very strange."

"Grosvenor Gate has become a hospital, but a hospital with you is worth a palace with anybody else. Your own D."

"A Warwickshire Lad,"² a story of the boyhood of William Shakespeare by George Madden Martin, gives a quaint, delightful picture of the home life of the Shakespeare family and portrays with fidelity of the lovable, devoted mother, who was Mistress Mary Arden of the Asbies, and the gallant, unsuccessful bailiff, John Shakespeare, the father. The story shows the master-dramatist as a truant lad, who often ran away to the woods with an older playmate, Ann Hathaway, a lass as fond of gypsying as the youthful Master Shakespeare. The historic detail is consistent and the events are enveloped in a haze of charming imaginative touches.

Ambassador Jusserand, dean of the diplomatic corps at Washington, and for thirteen years a resident of the United States, brings together in one volume several of his studies of men and events in American history which he deems of special interest from the point of view of Franco-American relations.³ Thus he treats of "Rocham-

beau and the French in America," "L'Enfant and the Federal City," "Washington and the French," and "Abraham Lincoln." In a preface M. Jusserand reminds us that his "diplomatic ancestor," Gerard de Rayneval, presented to Congress the first credentials brought here from abroad (being at that time the entire diplomatic body).

"Nights,"⁴ by Elizabeth Robins Pennell, gives us reminiscences of nights in Rome and Venice in the "Esthetic Eighties," and in London and Paris in the "Fighting Nineties." During this period Mrs. Pennell was a member of a brilliant group of artists and thinkers who waged a successful war upon Victorianism and smug Philistinism. It was the time of the new renaissance as a general movement, eventful years that saw the beginnings of many of the art and literary projects that have now come to mature flowering. One can re-live those years with Aubrey Beardsley and Henry Harland, with their *Yellow Book*; with Joseph Pennell, who made Beardsley famous over-night in the first issue of *The Studio*, William Ernest Henley, "Bob" Stevenson, George Moore, Rosamund Marriot-Watson, George Steevens, Whistler, and many others of the rebellious souls, since become wise and the famous, who animate the pages of Mrs. Pennell's pleasant, friendly book. The portrait of Beardsley is vivid, and there is a remarkable sketch of Verlaine. The book is illustrated with sixteen illustrations from photographs and etchings by well-known artists.

Just in time for the biennial convention of the General Federation of Women's Clubs, there appeared an eloquent appreciation written by Helen Knox of the life and character of the retiring president of the Federation, Mrs. Percy V. Pennybacker.⁵ Throughout her long career as student, historian, wife, mother and organizing genius, her fame and influence have become continually more far-reaching until to-day she is looked upon as an ideal type of American womanhood. Her administration of the Federation of Women's Clubs has been notable for harmony and achievement. Among the many praises of her genius and personality, there is none more expressive of just what Mrs. Pennybacker means to the women of America than the tribute from William J. Battle, president of the University of Texas:

"To me the noteworthy thing about Mrs. Pennybacker is the clearness of her understanding of women's position in the world of to-day and the force and beauty of her exposition of it. Even an old foggy could not withhold his admiration."

¹ The Life of Benjamin Disraeli. By George Earle Buckle. IV vol. 1855-68. 610 pp. \$3.

² A Warwickshire Lad. By George Madden Martin. D. Appleton Co. 112 pp. Ill. \$1.

³ With Americans of Past and Present Days. By J. J. Jusserand. Scribner's. 350 pp. \$1.50.

⁴ Nights. By Elizabeth Robins Pennell. Lippincott. 303 pp. \$3.

⁵ Mrs. Percy V. Pennybacker. By Helen Knox Revell. 192 pp. \$1.

BRIEF NOTES ON RECENT PUBLICATIONS

History

A Short History of Germany. By Ernest F. Henderson. Macmillan. 2 vol. 1121 pp., net. Maps. \$3.50.

This new edition of Mr. Henderson's admirable work contains additional chapters on the political, economic, and social progress of Germany from 1871 to 1914. Very wisely, the author makes no attempt at this time to carry the history beyond the outbreak of the great war, since, in his opinion, "subsequent events are too numerous and too complicated, even were they not too much in dispute, to be treated of with any profit in a work of this kind. Besides, they belong to a new era, the end of which our children's children may not see."

A History of the Third French Republic. By C. H. C. Wright. Houghton, Mifflin. 206 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

The forty-four years intervening between the downfall of the French Empire and the beginning of the present war formed a remarkable era in French history. For American readers the story of that era has never before been so clearly told as in this book by the Professor of the French Language and Literature at Harvard. The author traces the Egyptian and Morocco troubles, the Panama scandal, the Dreyfus case, the quarrel with the Church, the constantly growing radicalism of French parties, and all the great movements of this interesting period, culminating in the remarkable restoration of France to power and greatness as revealed under the test of war.

Poland. By W. Alison Phillips. Holt. 256 pp. 50 cents.

In the "Home University Library" a volume on Poland is contributed by W. Alison Phillips, Professor of Modern History in the University of Dublin. This writer endeavors to be scrupulously just to the German point of view in the case of the Polish question, but, while giving credit to Prussia for the good work she has done in the economic development of her Polish provinces, Professor Phillips draws from responsible German writers a condemnation of the Prussian spirit of domination and of the "policy of ruthless Germanization" which has been its outcome.

Ghenko—The Mongol Invasion of Japan. By Nakaba Yamada, B. A. Dutton. 277 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

This is the first concise account in English of the defeat of the Mongol invasion of Japan in the thirteenth century. An introduction is furnished by Lord Armstrong.

A History of the National Capital. By Wilhelmus Bogart Bryan. Vol. II. Macmillan. 707 pp. \$5.

The second and concluding volume of this elaborate history of the City of Washington

covers by far the more important portion of that history, beginning with the close of the War of 1812 and ending with adoption of the present form of government of the District of Columbia in 1878. This work deals with a great variety of topics that are of national rather than merely local interest—for example, the living conditions of Government employees living in the district, the social life of the capital, the successive Presidential inaugurations and terms, and, in general, the development of the City of Washington as the nation's capital.

A History of the University of Chicago. By Thomas Wakefield Goodspeed. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press. 522 pp. Ill. \$3.

It is hard for some of us to realize that the University of Chicago has already had a quarter-century of history. It is important that the beginnings of so great an institution should be accurately described before those who had a part in them have all passed from the scene. The author of this volume, Dr. T. W. Goodspeed, has been active in the affairs of the university from the very outset. He writes from intimate knowledge of the epoch-marking work of Dr. William R. Harper, the first president, as well as of the broadly successful administration of President Harry Pratt Judson.

Scandinavian Immigrants in New York (City and State), 1630-1674. By Prof. John O. Evjen, Ph.D. Minneapolis: K. C. Holter Pub. Co. 438 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

By marvelous industry in research, Dr. Evjen has succeeded in obtaining biographical data concerning 188 of the earliest Scandinavian settlers of New York, many of whom had been numbered among the Dutch founders of that community. The importance of Scandinavian immigration in the early period of our colonial history was never before so fully demonstrated.

The Jews Among the Greeks and Romans. By Max Radin. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society of America. 421 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

A coherent account, written from the standpoint of modern Jewish scholarship.

War, Preparedness, and National Sentiment

Why Preparedness? By Capt. Henry J. Reilly. Chicago: Daughaday & Co. 401 pp. Ill. \$2.

An American army officer gives in this volume his observations during the first year of the great war, first with the armies of the Allies and later with those of the Central Powers. Captain Reilly deduces from his observations those facts and arguments that have a special bearing on the question of American preparedness to-day. General Leonard Wood vouches for the accu-

racy of what Captain Reilly says, from the military standpoint, and urges the importance of the lessons that America should learn from the experiences of Great Britain and other powers in the present war.

Americanism—What It Is. By David Jayne Hill. Appleton. 280 pp. \$1.25.

An up-to-date analysis and review of American political conceptions. The two concluding chapters, "The Duty of National Defense" and "New Perils for Americanism," have special reference to current national problems.

Old Glory. By Mary Shipman Andrews. Charles Scribner's Sons. 126 pp. 50 cents net.

This trio of short stories—comprising "The Colors," "The Stranger Within the Gates," and "The Star Spangled Banner," are excellent and timely reading, pulsating with a patriotism and reverence for the Flag that give a real tug at the heart-strings of a true American.

Their True Faith and Allegiance. By Gustavus Ohlinger. Macmillan. 124 pp. 50 cents.

A stirring appeal to Americans of German birth or antecedents to be true to their American citizenship. A foreword is supplied by Owen Wister.

War and Civilization. By J. M. Robertson, M. P. Dutton. 160 pp. \$1.

An Englishman's reply to a Swedish professor's defense of Germany. The book traverses much of the familiar ground related to the beginnings of the war.

Culture and War. By Simon Nelson Patten. Huebsch. 62 pp. 60 cents.

A searching, dispassionate study of the principles at the basis of German culture.

What Could Germany Do for Ireland? By James K. McGuire. Wolfe Tone Co. 309 pp. \$1.

A sequel to "The King, the Kaiser, and Irish Freedom," by the same author. Mr. McGuire, the former mayor of Syracuse, N. Y., holds that Ireland can be nothing more than a vassal state, economically considered, so long as England's domination in the empire continues.

A Chronicle of 1915

The New International Year Book. A Compendium of the World's Progress for the year 1915. Edited by Frank Moore Colby, M. A., Allen Leon Churchill, and Horatio S. Krams, Ph. D. Dodd, Mead. 752 pp. Ill. \$5.

The International Year Book is the first work of reference to make extensive use of the data resulting from the wide range of scientific research occasioned by the war. Officials of the Department of Agriculture at Washington contribute articles dealing with the world's production of crops under war conditions, agriculture in Europe during the war, and the American horse and the war, together with surveys of soils, the potato

supply, and meat production. The various phases of the political and economic aspects of the war are also treated with thoroughness, and in this record of the calendar year 1915, notwithstanding the absence of certain routine statistical material from the nations engaged in the conflict, one finds a complete presentation of the activities of even these nations in this time of world crisis.

Coping with Hay-Fever

Hay-Fever: Its Prevention and Cure. By William C. Hollopeter, M.D. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 347 pp. \$1.25.

An especially timely book of wide interest, for the victims of hay-fever are numbered by hundreds of thousands, and their season of anguish is at hand. Dr. Hollopeter, who states in his preface that he has had remarkable and uniform success with a simple treatment of hay-fever for the last twenty years, deals with the subject in three parts: "What Hay-fever is"; "Accepted causes"; "Forms of treatment." There is already an extensive literature of the subject, as the complete bibliography appended to the book will show. Nevertheless a new work on this interesting and common disease, by a physician of high standing with a record of successful treatment, will doubtless interest the thousands of sufferers from this annual summer scourge.

Educational Books

The Playground Book. By Harry Sperling. A. S. Barnes Co. 105 pp. Ill. \$1.80.

Playground teachers will be glad to have "The Playground Book," by Harry Sperling. It presents a fairly limited choice of the best games and dances adapted to playground conditions and purposes in order that novices may refer with confidence to them for help and inspiration. There are singing games and folk dances with music, playground athletic games, also classroom games, suggestions, talks, etc., and a bibliography for playground workers. It is a large-sized book like a folio of music, well printed from large type, with excellent illustrations.

Bookbinding as a Handwork Subject. By J. Halliday Dutton. 73 pp. \$1.

This work explains how books can be bound with simple apparatus in a school classroom. The author suggests that simplified, inexpensive bookbinding can be used in many ways in schools, as in the making of notebooks and scrap-books, the binding of music, making of drawing books and binding of magazines. It is equally suitable for girls and boys as a stimulus to artistic taste and creative effort. A book for the home as well as for the schoolroom.

The Business of Being a Friend. By Bertha Condé. Houghton, Mifflin. 121 pp. \$1.25.

A good book to give to a girl, particularly the girl who is going away from home to school or college, is Bertha Condé's "The Business of Being a Friend." Miss Condé is Senior Student Secretary of the Young Women's Christian Association, and has studied for sixteen years the problems of girls in this country, Europe, and the Orient.

FINANCIAL NEWS

I.—THE SECURED FOREIGN GOVERNMENT LOAN

NEW ideas and new styles are constantly being displayed in the market for investment securities. There, as elsewhere, necessity is the mother of invention. The war is a leveler among borrowers as it is among aristocrats. It has been found embarrassing to say what would not be done and what concessions would not be made with the subsequent evidence that the thing denied was accepted and the concession rebuffed was embraced.

One of the new styles is the "secured foreign government loan." There have been occasions in the past when governments with low credit, such as those of the Balkan states, have pawned their chattels at high rates of interest for the money they imperatively needed and which Paris and London, and less frequently Berlin, loaned at high rates of interest. But no power of the first rank had ever been compelled to do so before France called on the American market in July for \$100,000,000 and was given the accommodation only after she had agreed to cover the amount with prime securities with a market value 20 per cent. in excess of the principal of the loan, and this margin to be maintained during its three-year tenure.

A New British Loan

Before the September REVIEW OF REVIEWS is published the investing public may be offered a second secured government loan, that of Great Britain. This will be one of the strangest financial episodes of the war, which has had a way of reversing precedent and beating down pride. Just a year ago negotiations were under way in New York for the \$500,000,000 Anglo-French loan which the West would not buy, as much because it was unsecured as from its pro-German sentiment. It went willingly enough into the French secured loan and is reported to have been allotted less than it wanted. The committee of London bankers who came over to borrow of our wealth flatly refused to consider a collateral loan, but they made concessions in other ways, mainly in the rate of interest and the price to the public, paying about $1\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. more than their last domestic loan had netted. The "Anglos," as

they are known in the vernacular of the market-place, were returning 6.25 per cent. when the French secured loan appeared, with its yield of approximately 5.75 per cent.

As there is only about a year's difference in the maturity, and two-name paper of the strongest credit nations in times of peace ought to sell better than one-name paper, the plain inference is that the American public wanted something behind their investment besides a promise to pay. For this reason it is assumed that the British secured loan forthcoming will yield less than the "Anglos." It is not necessary to suggest the change in financial conditions within a year that compel the foremost banking nation of the world to pledge securities for a loan from what was in 1914 a second- or third-rate banking power and badly in debt to this same borrower.

For one thing, the cost of the war had about doubled. Every nation involved has added enormously to its debt and subtracted from its income. The idea of repudiation is no longer scouted. In fact, very high financial authorities in Europe see no other escape from the problem of intolerable taxation. As we have repeatedly stated in these pages, external loans are in a class by themselves. They will be paid at face value on maturity, whatever the internal conditions of the borrowers. But even they must now be fortified by collateral which the American investor knows and respects and is willing to hold in the highly improbable event of a default. It certainly is not too much to ask that the collateral be given. Unsecured loans of all kinds are constantly becoming unpopular with bankers, who are asking the right of protection against unsecured paper which passes so freely in this country.

Wide Range of Collateral

Great Britain and France have been bankers for so many peoples throughout the world that they can bring out almost any kind of security that is required. For instance, in borrowing this summer France pledged \$113,449,000 of the bonds of ten different governments. The largest of these were \$20,600,000 Spanish interior and state-

guaranteed railroad bonds and \$20,500,000 Republic of Argentina bonds. Then there were \$20,200,000 of Egyptian bonds, \$12,080,000 of Swiss Republic bonds, and \$11,600,000 Suez Canal shares. The other countries represented by their obligations were Sweden, Denmark, Norway, and Holland, whose national wealth has immensely increased since the war, because of their commercial opportunities as neutrals, and Uruguay and Brazil. There were also \$3,700,000 of American corporation issues. In the event of a second loan by France, it is probable that about the same character of securities would be presented. The great masses of Russian, Mexican, Turkish, Grecian and Servian bonds, held to the extent of many milliard francs, would be of no use as collateral here or elsewhere at the present time.

The main investments of Great Britain have been in the United States, Canada, and South America. It is quite likely that she would offer collateral of a description entirely familiar to the New York market. Although it is believed that the liquidation of American corporation stocks and bonds by English investors has been well above \$1,000,000,000 par value, there is another billion or more that can be drawn on to pay bills or to secure loans. One advantage of establishing credits is that it withdraws from sale a large amount of securities which otherwise would compete in sale with new issues and tend to depress prices of all stocks and bonds.

The United States as a Creditor Nation

Since the war began the United States has loaned \$1,200,000,000 to foreign nations. This is 20 per cent. more than the entire net debt of the United States. It is doubtful if,

on August 1, 1914, there was \$150,000,000 of foreign government or state paper owned by American investors. Most of this was held by institutions. By the war's end it is reasonable to expect an investment of \$2,000,000,000, irrespective of the capital that will go into business undertakings. This ought to mean an income of well over \$110,000,000, or about the amount we were formerly credited with paying Europe each year for interest and dividends. A great many of the American securities owned abroad paid nothing. There was no investment there in American government issues. By far our largest debtor will be the nation with whom we shall compete most sharply both for financial and commercial advantage.

Another phase of the borrowing will come with peace. So far we have loaned almost entirely to the Entente and to neutrals. The amount which Germany has been able to obtain here has been very small, probably not over \$25,000,000. She will want large supplies of capital when the fighting ends, and from the best sources available she has sufficient American collateral to offer. Sentiment will be different then than it is now. There will be bidding for banking relations in Germany, even though she is beaten. An attractive rate of interest on the obligation of a nation that has so far promptly paid her debts and exhibited wonderful vitality and resourcefulness will overcome racial prejudices. It is not improbable, therefore, that \$1,000,000,000 of American capital may go into the combined loans of Central Europe, Asia Minor, and China in the first few years following peace, and that in the majority of instances there will be securities, or tax receipts, or government concessions, pledged to insure prompt payment of principal and interest to the American lender.

II.—INVESTORS' QUERIES AND ANSWERS

No. 767. MUNICIPALS FOR PARTIAL PAYMENT INVESTMENT

I am thinking of buying a few bonds on the partial payment plan and have had municipals recommended to me. Would you advise this form of savings, and what particular class of municipal bonds do you prefer? Also, what about the marketability of this kind of denomination of bonds?

We consider municipal bonds one of the very best types of securities for one to purchase on the partial payment plan, provided of course, one deals with an unquestionably reliable firm of specialists in such securities.

Everything considered, we think it might be well for a beginner, in buying bonds in this category, to confine his selections to issues that are legal as security for Postal Savings deposits,

although we are frank to say there are a good many attractive municipals that fall short by some slight technicality of meeting the Government's requirements in this respect.

You ask about the marketability of this kind and denomination of bonds. It must be recognized frankly that in respect to the virtue of marketability, municipal bonds, and especially those of the smaller denominations, are to some extent deficient. But on the other hand, the better class of banking specialists in this type of investment are, as a rule, prepared to take care of all their clients' legitimate needs for cash by repurchasing bonds at a nominal discount to cover handling charges, or by loaning money on the bonds as collateral security.

No. 768. FOUR REPRESENTATIVE LISTED INDUSTRIAL BONDS

Do you think the present an opportune time for one holding a predominance of railroad bonds to buy industrial issues? If so, what would you suggest?

Almost any time is a good time for the conservative investor to begin to practise the principle of diversification. Although we believe pretty careful discrimination is called for now in making selections from the list of industrial bonds, there are in our judgment a good many high-class issues available at satisfactory yields of income. The following might be suggested as illustrative of the kind of industrial bonds that appeal to the more discriminating buyers:

Bethlehem Steel first and refunding 5's.

Liggett & Myers Tobacco debenture 5's.

Armour & Co. real estate 4½'s.

Swift & Co. first mortgage 5's.

These are all listed issues of good market, available now to yield 5 per cent. or a fraction under.

No. 769. THE IMPORTANCE OF "SPONSORSHIP" IN INVESTMENT

A short time ago I was considering the investment of funds in farm loans, but I found on inquiring of others, including my bank, that such investments depend for their integrity upon the firm issuing them. What have you to say about this?

This is true in a sense of every type of investment. But it is not quite correct to say, or to give the impression, that the integrity depends *entirely* upon the issuing or sponsoring bankers. It is, of course, their underlying security upon which the investor must depend in the final analysis, whether they be mortgages or bonds.

On the other hand, there is no question that investors in mortgages ought to pay particular attention to this question, making sure in the first instance that the mortgage banking firm from which he buys is not only reliable, but experienced in the selection of such securities; and that, moreover, it has the reputation for giving the proper kind of service to its clients throughout the life of the mortgages it sells.

No. 770. HOW TO ENDORSE STOCK CERTIFICATES WHEN OFFERING THEM FOR SALE

Kindly give me instructions as to how to endorse a stock certificate to a broker when sending it to him with instructions to sell at a specified price.

You ought not to endorse the stock certificate to any particular individual or firm. Instead, you should endorse it "in blank," merely signing your name in the space provided for that purpose on the back of the certificate, leaving blank the space following after the words, "For value received I hereby sell, assign and transfer unto," etc., and also leaving blank the space following immediately after the words, "and do hereby irrevocably constitute and appoint," etc.

Such an endorsement is the only kind that would enable your broker to market the stock according to your instructions without a good deal of formality and delay, and the only kind that would make it possible for him to return the certificate to you promptly, in case market

conditions were such that your instructions could not be carried out.

No. 771. CONSTRUCTION BONDS

Do you consider construction bonds—first mortgage—safe and reliable investments?

It is difficult, and dangerous as well, to undertake to generalize about the merits of construction bonds. About the only thing one is able to say about such bonds, as a class, is that they cannot be considered conservative investments. But as such securities go, there are rather attractive propositions offered from time to time for the employment of funds in circumstances where some risk can properly be assumed for the sake of higher yield and the possibility of growth in underlying values. However, each individual case of the kind has to be considered carefully on its own merits.

No. 772. THE MEANING OF "CUMULATIVE"

Kindly explain briefly the significance of the word "cumulative" in connection with preferred stocks.

Preferred stock dividends are said to be "cumulative," when it is provided that in the event of the issuing company's failure to pay the dividend in whole or in part in any year, or series of years, the total of the unpaid amount at the fixed rate must be paid before dividends can be paid on any issue of stock that is junior to the preferred.

No. 773. GOLD IN THE UNITED STATES

Is it known approximately how much gold, used as money, is now in the United States, and what per cent. this is of the world's stock of gold?

The amount of gold in circulation in the United States is approximately \$600,000,000. In addition to this there are approximately \$1,076,000,000 gold certificates in circulation, these being, in effect, warehouse receipts for the equivalent amount of gold coin. The world's stock of gold is estimated at between eight and eight and a half billions of dollars.

No. 774. NORTHERN PACIFIC—LOUISVILLE AND NASHVILLE

Will you please give me your opinion of Northern Pacific? Do you think the stock a safe investment now? Can you recommend the stock of a north and south railroad that is as good as Northern Pacific intrinsically and that returns as good a yield on the investment?

It seems to us that Northern Pacific's outlook is one that promises steady development of earning capacity and the building up of stronger equities back of the stock. For a security of its type and class we regard Northern Pacific as a good investment at present prices.

There is really nothing in the list of standard dividend-paying stocks representing a north-and-south road that quite compares with Northern Pacific. From the investment point of view, we think, possibly the nearest approach to it is found in Louisville & Nashville. This is a stock of investment rating, but its yield at current market prices is nearly one per cent. below the current yield of Northern Pacific.

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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THE AMERICAN-MEXICAN JOINT COMMISSION

Various questions involved in the relations of the United States and Mexico are now under consideration by a commission consisting of three Americans and three Mexicans. The idea was General Carranza's, acceptable to President Wilson. The commission met at New London, Conn., on September 6, and entered upon a comprehensive survey of the problems of Mexican political and economic reconstruction. In the picture above, the commissioners are seated, the Americans at the left and the Mexicans at the right. From left to right in the front row are: Dr. John R. Mott, Judge George Gray, Franklin K. Lane (Secretary of the Interior), Luis Cabrera (Mexican Minister of Justice), Ignacio Bonillas, and Alberto J. Pani. Standing in the rear are: Stephen Bonsal, adviser; Robert Lansing, Secretary of State; Eliseo Arredondo, Mexican Ambassador-Designate; and Dr. L. S. Rowe, secretary.

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

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No. 4

The Presidential Office

It was not expected that the political campaign in the United States would reach its maximum of intensity until October. But it was not deemed possible in May and June that the political pot would simmer so gently through August and September. The times are abnormal; and the subjects of current importance are so varied and urgent that political activity is not expressed in old-fashioned partisan ways. Thus the plans of candidates and managers have to be adapted to conditions as they find them. There has been a steady drift in our system of government towards personal direction and control by the President. This has not been by reason of conscious effort on the part of the successive incumbents of that office to grasp power for themselves or to weaken the authority of Congress. Our Presidents have meant to exercise their power openly and responsibly, in promotion of the general welfare. So vast have become the interests and operations of the government that unless somebody is in a position to lead, direct, and decide, the public business would come to a standstill. In such aspects the office of the President becomes increasingly like that of the head of a great industrial or transportation company.

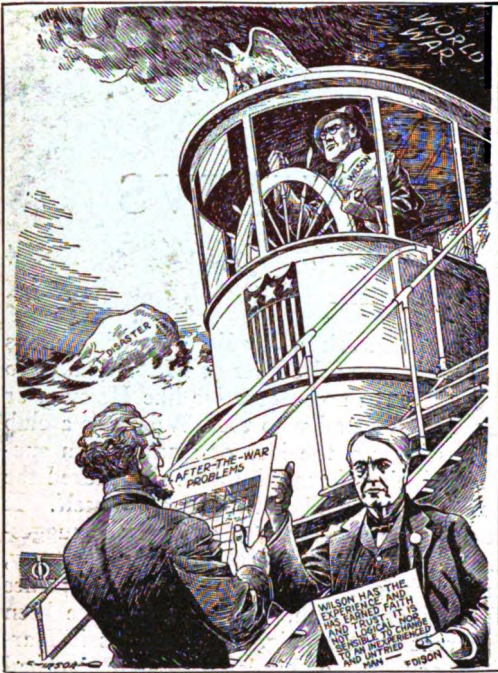
Personal Aspects

The methods and the temperament of the particular incumbent must therefore of necessity have a marked effect upon the results. It is not merely a question of Republicans versus Democrats in power. The personal equation is even more important nowadays than the party affiliation. Thus as the preliminary campaign of 1912 was entered upon, Mr. Judson Harmon, of Ohio, was by far the leading Democratic aspirant. As the situation developed, Mr. Champ Clark passed Mr. Harmon in the race and stood first of all in the primaries, in States where preference was thus indicated. Mr. Wilson came forward and gained success in the con-

vention through a deadlocking of factions and the powerful efforts of Mr. Bryan, who did not want a conservative like Harmon or Underwood, and who used Wilson as a club against Clark, the idea of many Bryan supporters being that with Clark sidetracked the nomination would fall to Bryan himself. It requires no argument to support the suggestion that the record of the Democratic party, and of the office of the Presidency itself; since the 4th of March, 1913, would have been different in many significant aspects if Harmon, or Clark, or Underwood, or Bryan had been nominated and elected instead of the distinguished Governor of New Jersey.

Wilson as Master

During all of this period, Clark has held the influential post of Speaker of the House, and Underwood has been a great legislative figure first in the House and later in the Senate. Bryan, meanwhile, has been for more than half the time the leading member of the Cabinet. Yet with these men high in Government places at Washington, the hand of authority has been wholly that of Woodrow Wilson. He has swayed Congress; and his Cabinet—always ready to aid him—has never been supposed to dispute his judgment where his own mind was dealing actively with a problem. As President he has dared to face responsibility. For what has been done, he is entitled to be regarded as having made the decisions that have shaped all important policies, whether domestic or foreign. It is no part of our purpose to speculate upon what Judson Harmon or Champ Clark would have done as President. It is enough merely to suggest that they would have found each his own methods and would doubtless have been led to different decisions in many instances. The Democrats had not intended, in 1912, to accord a renomination in 1916. But the very nature of the Presidency makes it impossible for either great party to resist the pressure in favor of a second term. The situation at the end of



UNCLE SAM TO MR. EDISON: "FEAR NOT, TOM; I'LL KEEP HIM AT THE WHEEL."
From the News (Dayton)

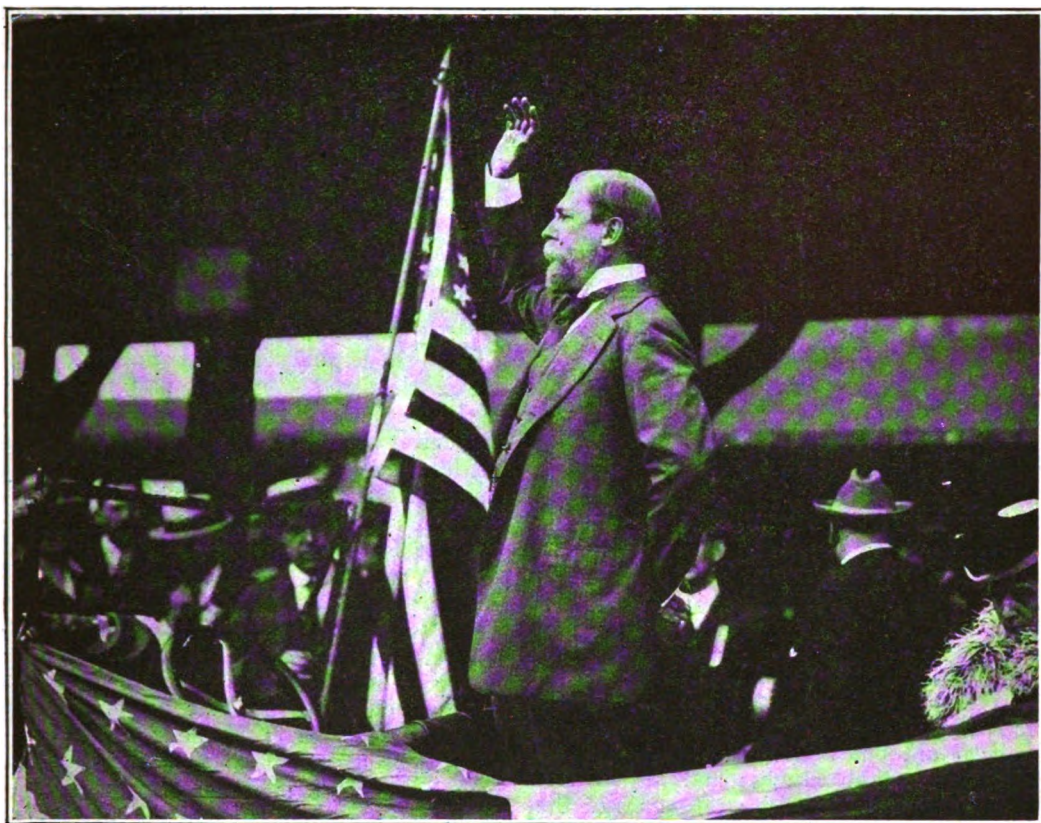
the first term is that which the incumbent has personally shaped; and he and his colleagues feel impelled to seek a vote of confidence and an extension of their term of authority, to the end that they may further complete their programs. Great executive energy has characterized Mr. Wilson's administration, and this would have been perhaps even more apparent if he had come to the office in ordinary times. In any case, the record would have been positive rather than negative. It would be a mistake to suppose that because some things are not settled that were pending a year ago, there has been lethargy or a spirit of timid inaction. Whether in all cases the right action has been taken is a question the answer to which every man must find for himself.

Government and the Citizen
In times like these, the wise management of public affairs is much more important to the private citizen than in times that are relatively normal. There have been periods when many men in this country were so absorbed in their own individual affairs that they cared very little how the city or the State or the nation might be governed. But nowadays it makes so much difference that men are taking a new kind of interest in politics. The ordinary citizen no longer cares for the

old-fashioned party game. He does not want to have established over him in America a government that will be a menace and a terror, and one whose uncertainties keep him too anxious to sleep well at night. It is only lately that Americans have come to be positively afraid of governmental activity, in view of the vast range of its mischief-making capacity. They think of European governments as dangerously misrepresentative establishments, that have a tendency to precipitate quiet and peace-loving nations into quarrels with other nations; and they are worried lest their own government may get them into scrapes. While, then, we have a far greater number of citizens to-day than ever before who care next to nothing for the names "Republican" or "Democrat," it is not less true that we have many more citizens than ever before who are afraid of the harm that unwisdom in government may perpetrate, and who long to have the affairs of the United States directed with honor, justice, and safety during the next four years.

*Hughes Also
a Strong
Character*

These citizens are more anxious than they are enthusiastic. Many of them do not yet know whether they will vote next month for Wilson or for Hughes. The prevalence of such feelings accounts for the fact that there is so little of the intensely partisan shouting and hullabaloo. It is plain to every thoughtful voter that we are in any case to be ruled, during the coming four years, by a decisive and self-directed personality. Mr. Hughes is a man of somewhat reserved habits, like Mr. Wilson, and he has been known as a public man for a longer time. Nobody questions his firmness of disposition, his strength of character, and his decisiveness in the presence of responsibility. Real partisanship is for the time being very much at a discount. Either Wilson or Hughes is to be our next President. We shall come into serious and complicated situations, both domestic and foreign, that will require the best wisdom for their treatment; and there will be in any case less temptation to express public issues in terms of partisanship than heretofore. Mr. Hughes if elected means to be the President of the country and to have equal concern for the well-being of all his fellow-citizens, whether Republicans, Progressives, or Democrats. The same thing may be said of Mr. Wilson. We shall see, also, more independence in both houses of Congress. Yet whether the one party or the other is in nominal majority in House and



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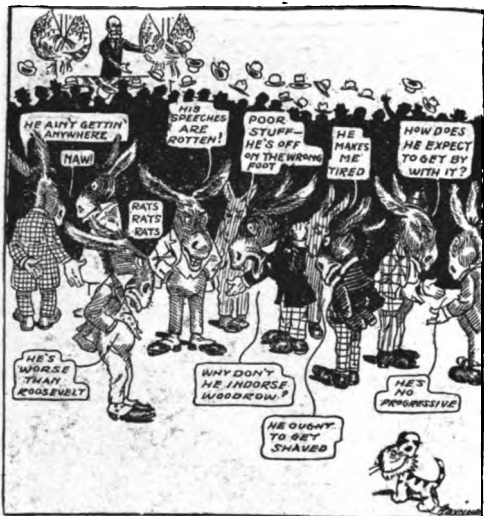
HON. CHARLES EVANS HUGHES, AS HE APPEARED LAST MONTH WHEN MAKING CAMPAIGN SPEECHES

Senate, there will be a disposition to support the President in important things. In a minor sense, it is true, the country is judging between parties. In a somewhat quiet way this is all being worked out in the Congressional and Senatorial campaigns. But in the large sense the country is simply engaged in making up its mind as between two men: Shall Wilson or Hughes head the nation?

*How Hughes
Faces the
Voters*

The President, by virtue of his office, is always in the limelight, and he can so shape events as to bring new issues to the front while obscuring old ones or changing their bearings. But the opposition candidate must find his own way to secure the confidence and the interested attention of the country. It seemed for a time that Colonel Roosevelt might be the only man in bold opposition to the President and his policies who could command sufficient personal influence to counterbalance the advantages that belong to the man who wields official power. But Judge Hughes evidently realizes that he must impress himself upon the country, and that success must

come by way of creating everywhere the conviction that he has such qualities of sagacity and of temper as would enable him to do the right thing rather than the wrong thing in an emergency. It is not, of course, the gift of campaign eloquence or the exercise of what is called magnetism in public speaking that proves a man's fitness to do the work of the Presidency. During Mr. Hughes' long speaking tour across the continent in August, there was an attempt on the part of certain newspapers—the *New York Times*, for example—to make him out a sad failure as a candidate, because his speeches were not those that some other man might have made. But Mr. Hughes, who is a man of intelligence, force, and convictions, was obliged in the nature of things to find his own way of exchanging views with his audiences. Voters were compelled to decide whether they wished to go on for another four years with Mr. Wilson and his methods, regardless of the possibility of finding a better leadership. The balance was to be turned by those still in doubt, who had to be convinced.



IT SEEMS THAT MR. HUGHES' SPEECHES ARE NOT APPRECIATED IN SOME QUARTERS
From the *Oregonian* (Portland)

A Hopeful Candidate

It was for Mr. Hughes, then, to make all Republicans, most Progressives, and many Independents feel that the country would be not merely as well off, but decidedly in stronger and safer hands with Hughes and his advisers than with Wilson and his colleagues of the existing Government. Many of our readers in different States and sections of the country can judge better how their fellow-citizens feel on this question of Hughes as a candidate than we can know as we write these comments in New York. But advices which come to us in a variety of ways indicate that Hughes is quietly but steadily gaining in strength, especially since the first week in September. Political events on both coasts had been favorable, and so he started in the middle of September, in good spirits, upon another and less extensive tour than that of August. One of the events that had been of benefit to Mr. Hughes was the nomination of Governor Hiram Johnson for United States Senator in California, by Republicans as well as Progressives. Governor Johnson is strongly supporting Mr. Hughes. In the State of Washington, Senator Poindexter, eminent as a Progressive, has won the endorsement of Republican primaries. There could be no better indication of a large measure of reunion between Republicans and Progressives than that the Republicans should join in sending such active Progressives as Johnson and Poindexter to the Senate. It has been feared that Mr. Hughes' candidacy might suffer from too

narrow an attitude on the part of Republicans towards former Progressives. But it would now appear that, in many States at least, the Progressive element has been quite generously recognized. Many Progressives, indeed, have announced their support of Mr. Wilson. A large majority, however, of those who voted for Colonel Roosevelt four years ago are now relied upon to support Justice Hughes.

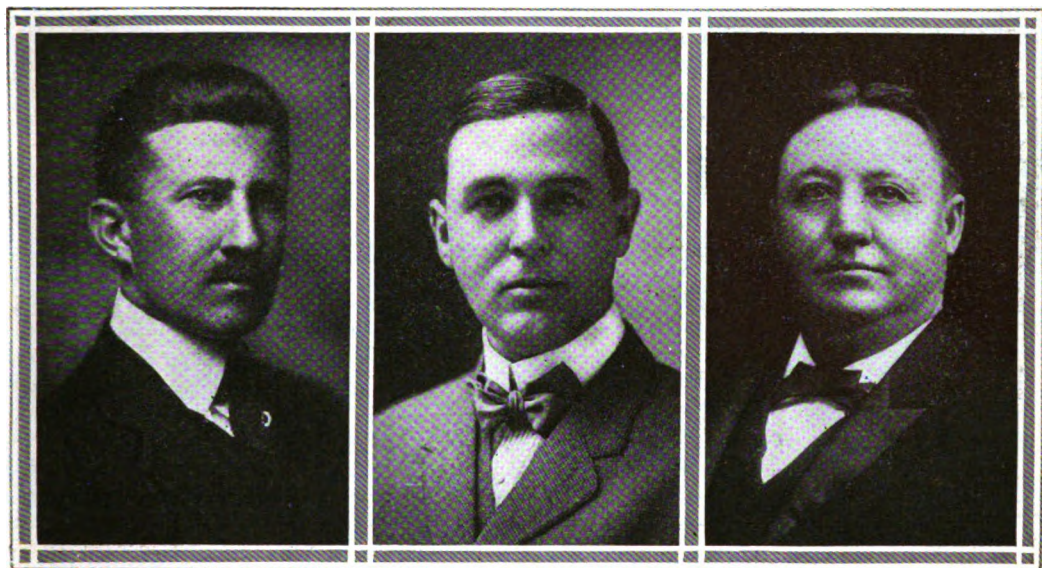
Success in Maine

In politics everywhere success is a powerful argument. If the Republicans had failed in the Maine election last month, they might indeed have pulled off a victory in November. But defeat in Maine would have been a serious blow to Republican prestige, and would have made the rest of the campaign period much more anxious and difficult. It is true that the Republicans were entitled to carry Maine, and that the Democrats can find plausible grounds for keeping up their courage. But there existed in some quarters the opinion that the country was overwhelmingly for Wilson, and that Maine would do the unusual thing on that account. The September election in Maine is always complicated by local issues. Yet this year both Democrats and Republicans fought the campaign on large issues, and the State was flooded with oratory by men of national repute, including Candidate Hughes, Colonel Roosevelt, members of the Cabinet, and many others. The Democrats attribute the election of Mr. Milliken as Governor to the prohibition issue, but they are not justified



ADVICE APLENTY

From the *Evening News* (Newark)



FREDERICK HALE
(Senator, long term)

CARL E. MILLIKEN
(Governor)

BERT M. FERNALD
(Senator, short term)

REPUBLICAN CANDIDATES CHOSEN IN THE MAINE ELECTION ON SEPTEMBER 11

in claiming that the defeat of Senator Johnson was due to that local question. Col. Frederick Hale, a son of the late Senator Eugene Hale, was elected to the Senate, as was Mr. Bert M. Fernald, to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Senator Burleigh. Maine indicates an anti-Democratic swing of the political pendulum. Senator Johnson was a conspicuous supporter of the Administration, and the national Democratic leaders believed to the last that he would run ahead of his ticket and secure another term. He did indeed make a stronger run than his colleagues on the ticket, but Mr. Hale won by more than 11,000, while the general Republican majority was more than 13,000. The vote has been analyzed in various ways, and used by the opposite sides

as supporting their prospects. A reasonable analysis seems to us to show that the division of 1912 has been fairly well overcome and that most of those who voted for Roosevelt and for Taft are this year supporting the Republican candidates.



EVERYBODY HAPPY OVER THE MAINE ELECTION
From the *Leader* (Cleveland)



TAKE YOUR CHOICE
From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus)



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"SHADOW LAWN" IS THE NAME OF THE HOUSE AT LONG BRANCH, N. J., OCCUPIED FOR THE SUMMER AND AUTUMN BY PRESIDENT WILSON

(The scene shows thousands of people assembled on occasion of his formal speech of acceptance, September 2.)

Wilson Accepts and Sums Up President Wilson's formal address in acceptance of his renomination was delivered on September 2 at Long Branch, N. J., from the porch of the house which he occupies as a summer residence. Prominent officials and party leaders were present, and the occasion was made notable by a speech which in manner and form was one of Mr. Wilson's best. As we have frequently remarked, Mr. Wilson was proposing to go before the country upon a record of achievement, and was impelling Congress to strengthen the record by the completion of certain measures, a number of which we have recounted and explained in our recent issues. The speech begins with a general indictment of the Republican party for its failure, in the years preceding Mr. Wilson's term, to reform the tariff and currency and to serve the needs alike of business men, farmers, and wage-earners. The President then proceeds to praise the Democratic tariff, the legislation which gives us the Trade Commission, and the Federal Reserve Act. He is on less firm ground when he declares that "effective measures have been taken for the re-creation of an American merchant marine and the revival of the American carrying trade." He anticipates things, also, when he says that "the Interstate Commerce Commission is about to be reorganized to enable it to perform its great and important functions more promptly and more efficiently." Yet doubtless this desirable pending measure will become a law next winter.

"We Also Are Progressives!" There follows a recital of many things recently embodied in the statutes of the country, including measures for benefiting farmers, a number for the welfare of one class or another of wage-earners, and, not least, the new Child Labor Act, an account of which our readers will find in this number of the REVIEW from the pen of Mr. A. J. McKelway, himself one of the foremost of our workers in the cause of social and industrial reform. In this field, the record is very notable. "We have in four years," says the President, "come very near to carrying out the platform of the Progressive party as well as our own; for we also are progressives." Having recounted the progressive things achieved under his leadership, Mr. Wilson declares that "this program . . . was resisted at every step by the interests which the Republican party had catered to and fostered at the expense of the country, and these same interests are now earnestly praying for a reaction which will save their privileges—for the restoration of their sworn friends to power before it is too late to recover what they have lost." Mr. Wilson ends his indictment of the Republican party and his review of his program of domestic reform with the following paragraph:

The Republican party is just the party that cannot meet the new conditions of a new age. It does not know the way and it does not wish new conditions. It tried to break away from the old leaders and could not. They still select its

candidates and dictate its policy, still resist change, still hanker after the old conditions, still know no methods of encouraging business but the old methods. When it changes its leaders and its purposes and brings its ideas up to date it will have the right to ask the American people to give it power again; but not until then. A new age, an age of revolutionary change, needs new purposes and new ideas.

*Doing Things
for
"Labor"*

In all the list of things that had been attempted or achieved on behalf of wage-earners by President Wilson and the Democratic Congress, the most extraordinary one was not mentioned in this speech of acceptance, although at that very moment it was filling all the newspapers as the very climax of governmental assertion in the field of industrial life. The Railroad Eight-Hour Law must be regarded as by far overshadowing all the rest of the program which Mr. Wilson himself summarized in the following paragraph:

The workmen of America have been given a veritable emancipation, by the legal recognition of a man's labor as part of his life, and not a mere marketable commodity; by exempting labor organizations from processes of the courts which treated their members like fractional parts of mobs and not like accessible and responsible individuals; by releasing our seamen from involuntary servitude; by making adequate provision for compensation for industrial accidents; by providing suitable machinery for mediation and conciliation in industrial disputes, and by putting the Federal Department of Labor at the disposal of the workman when in search of work.

The reason for omitting the Eight-Hour Law from this list of September 2 is obvious enough. Mr. Wilson did not leave Washington to go to Long Branch for the notification formalities until this remarkable bill, which had been rushed through the House of Representatives on Friday, September 1, was reaching a vote—with the certainty of passage—in the Senate before ad-

jourment Saturday night. It was not until the following day, Sunday, that President Wilson had opportunity to affix his signature.

*The
Nation's New
Wards*

His views on the subject were current, inasmuch as the measure was of his own creation. It would not have been feasible to try to expound or defend it in his acceptance speech. It was necessary that he should meet attacks upon his action in this crisis at some later stage in the campaign; and the matter was accordingly deferred,

to be taken up in an address prepared for business men who were visiting the summer White House on Saturday, September 23. When our issue for last month went to press, as our readers will remember, the country was facing the danger of a strike on the part of men running railroad trains. The strike is averted, and the 400,000 men are a preferred class, whose wages are now a matter of Federal statute. These men are well organized in the four brotherhoods of locomotive engineers, locomotive firemen, conductors, and trainmen. In former times each brotherhood made its de-

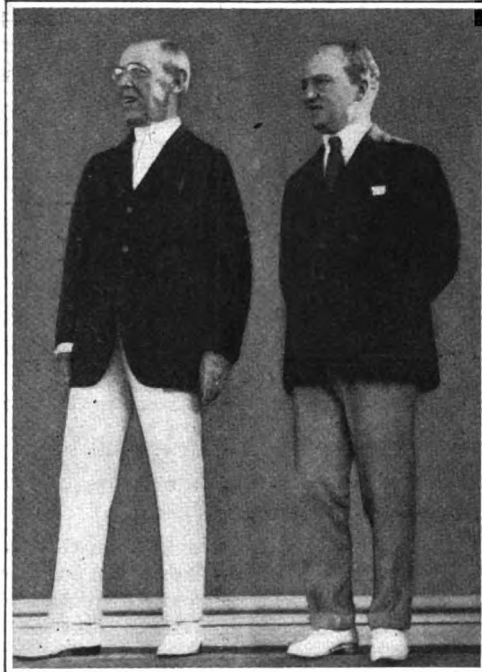


Photo by American Press Association

PRESIDENT WILSON AND SECRETARY TUMULTY ON STEPS OF "SHADOW LAWN"

mands by itself, and usually it dealt with a single railroad company at a time, or else with the roads of a single division of the country. But in making their latest demands the four brotherhoods acted together as a unit, and faced all of the railroads of the country at the same time, which were also obliged in turn to act concertedly. It is to be said further in explanation that all of these brotherhoods had within a comparatively recent period been accorded the opportunity to have all of their demands regarding wages, hours, and conditions of labor submitted to impartial arbitration. In these highly respected railroad services, the principle of unionism has not been at stake. Organization of labor has been fully recognized.



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MR. E. P. RIPLEY, PRESIDENT OF THE "SANTA FE"
RAILROAD SYSTEMMR. HALE HOLDEN, PRESIDENT OF THE "BURLINGTON"
SYSTEM

(Among the railroad executives concerned in the negotiations at Washington, none were more prominent than Mr. Holden and Mr. Ripley. Mr. Holden acted as spokesman for the roads at the White House conferences. Mr. Ripley has announced that his road will contest the law in the courts as unconstitutional)

Arbitration Refused

The men for years past have secured steady advances in the direction of their successive claims and demands. In earlier days, railroad companies had a tendency to be arrogant, and the men had sometimes to fight in order to secure the principle of arbitration. They won that fight, and their victory was fortunate, because the general public rightly demands the uninterrupted operation of railroads, and should be safeguarded against strikes and lockouts. In this latest controversy, however, the arrogance was on the side of the railroad brotherhoods. They made certain sweeping demands, refused to arbitrate them, and declared that they would paralyze commerce by stopping every wheel between the Atlantic and Pacific Coast on all railroads. It is needless to paint pictures of the suffering and loss that would result from a general railroad tie-up. There seems to have been a complete acquiescence in the view of the brotherhood leaders that they could make a strike successful. The Department of Labor at Washington, through its Conciliation Board, tried in vain to bring about a peaceable solution of the trouble.

Finally, the conferences were adjourned to Washington, where President Wilson endeavored to find a way to bring the opposing parties to some sort of agreement in order to avert the impending strike.

Extent of the Demand

The thing in dispute was not, as most people supposed, the length of the day's work, but the mode of reckoning pay. Although the strike would also have stopped passenger trains, the controversy related to men operating freight trains. Generally speaking, the day's work for trainmen consists in making a certain run, from one point to another. These runs may be regarded as averaging something like a hundred miles. If this mileage can be accomplished within ten hours, the day's wage is paid without claim for overtime. If the run is accomplished in less than ten hours, the trainmen have their full day's pay. But if, for one cause or another, there is delay, and the run takes eleven or twelve hours, the men receive one or two hours of *pro rata* overtime pay. The demand of the men in the recent controversy was not for a shortening of the runs, but for

a change in the way of computing wages. They demanded that overtime should begin with the completion of eight hours, and that the rate of pay for overtime should be 50 per cent. greater than the *pro rata* hourly pay. To take the case of a man who is now earning \$5 a day: If he should happen to be out twelve hours, he now receives \$6, this including two hours of overtime at 50 cents an hour. If the demands of the men were fully granted, this worker would receive \$5 for having been out eight hours. His overtime pay would be based upon one-eighth of the day's wage, and would therefore be $62\frac{1}{2}$ cents plus $31\frac{1}{4}$, or $93\frac{3}{4}$ cents per hour. If, then, he should be delayed, as in the case we have already mentioned, and thus work for twelve hours, he would receive \$3.75 for overtime and \$5 for the regular day, making a total of \$8.75 instead of the \$6 which he receives at present.

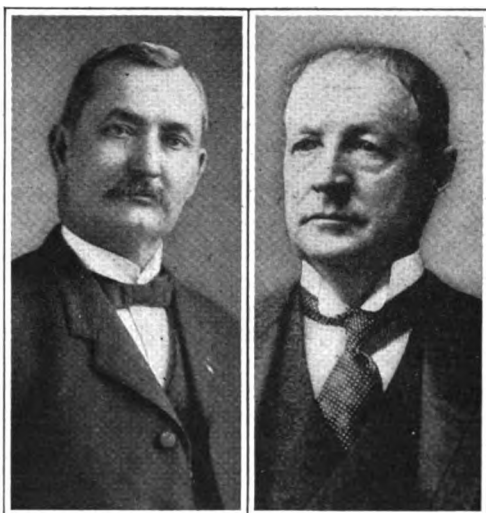
*A Surrender
of
Principle*

The railroad companies were willing to arbitrate all the men's demands without presenting any of their own offsetting claims. They were further willing to have President Wilson name all of the arbitrators. But the brotherhoods were obdurate and would arbitrate on no terms whatsoever. President Wilson seems to have been greatly impressed by the calamity that the country would suffer if the brotherhoods actually went out on strike. He tried to persuade the railroad presidents to concede the eight-hour basis, in order to avert this calamity. They stood firmly, however, for arbitration as against the yielding to a "hold up." It was the President's golden opportunity to speak firmly and strongly for arbitration. If he had done this, there would not, in our opinion, have been a strike. But even if a strike had been attempted, it would have been a flat failure, because wholly without shadow of excuse, and condemned by an outraged public. The men were not acting in the interest of labor; much less in the interest of unionism. It was a sad spectacle to see the great organizations that had once been led by wiser men, thus dominated by headstrong and arbitrary counsels. It was not a question of the reasonableness of the things the men desired, but of the methods to be used in obtaining them. Nor was it the railroad companies that were being held up, but the American public as a whole. There was nothing requiring especial haste. The issues involved could await thorough investigation. The nature of the grievances alleged by the men is well set forth in an article contributed by

Professor Ripley, an eminent authority, to this number of the REVIEW.

*Law-Making
Under
Duress*

In the case of the Anthracite Coal Strike, President Roosevelt stood firmly for arbitration as against arrogance on the part of the companies, and he carried his point. In this case President Wilson had the opportunity to show equal firmness in standing for arbitration when the arrogance was on the other side. In our judgment, such a stand would have strengthened him, not only with the general public but with organized labor itself. The thing that President Wilson decided to do was to go to Congress and de-



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CONGRESSMAN ADAMSON SENATOR NEWLANDS

(Mr. Adamson, as chairman of the House Committee on Interstate Commerce, is the author of the Railroad Eight-Hour Law framed in accordance with the wishes of the President and the railroad brotherhoods. Mr. Newlands, as chairman of the corresponding committee in the Senate, guided the measure through the upper house.)

mand the enactment of a law for the benefit of one particular set of men engaged in a private calling, under the threat on their part that they would strike on Monday, the 4th, if the law were not passed and signed before that date. The bill, accordingly, was rushed through the House on the 1st of September, through the Senate on the 2d, and signed by the President on the 3rd. We refer our readers to Professor Ripley's article, on page 390, for a more thorough statement of what the law is. In effect, it declares that railway trainmen are to be paid on the basis of an eight-hour day. The law does not go into effect until January 1. Section 2 of the act authorizes the President to appoint a com-



TOO COWED TO FIGHT
From the *Eagle* (Brooklyn)

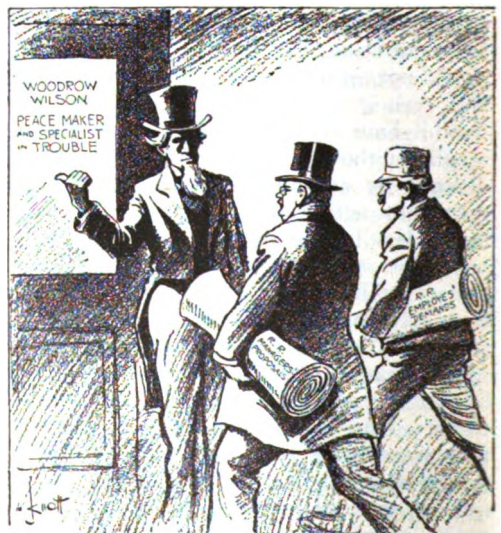
mission of three, to observe the workings of the act for six months or nine months after it goes into effect. Section 3 provides that the pay of such railway employees shall not be reduced below the present wages until after the commission reports. This provision will practically fix wages until near the end of the year 1917. The law does not require more than *pro rata* payment for overtime. Its sole practical effect is to invade the field of strictly private employment, and to declare by statute that a certain class of employers shall not have the same freedom in the labor market as other employers; and it attempts to fix wages in a more arbitrary way, probably, than any statute passed by any other modern government.

**The Larger
Railroad
Program**

It should be explained that President Wilson had appeared before Congress on the afternoon of August 29, and delivered a message reviewing the whole subject, putting the railroad managers in the wrong, assuming that they ought to have yielded the eight-hour point without a hearing, and proposing a program of legislation that might have justified at least two years of discussion, because of its radical and sweeping character. His first project, that of a reorganized Interstate Commerce Commission, required care in details, but was not novel nor improvised for the occasion. His second was the measure actually passed, that of an eight-hour day as the legal basis of work and wages for men operating trains—this being wholly impro-

vised. His third proposal (also enacted) was the one requiring the appointment of a commission to observe and report. His fourth proposal was that Congress should explicitly favor an increase of freight rates to meet additional labor cost to the railroads, if the Interstate Commerce Commission should find that the facts justify such increase. The fifth proposal was that railroad strikes and lockouts should be prohibited by law until a public investigation into the merits of the dispute should have been made, in case of failure to secure mediation or arbitration. The sixth proposal was that in case of military necessity the President should have authority to seize and operate the railroads and to draft trainmen into military service, together with other railroad employees, in so far as the public exigency might require their labor.

It was this remarkable program that President Wilson, on a certain Tuesday afternoon, advised Congress that he desired to have enacted into law before the end of the week. It was necessary to secure the relenting of four labor leaders, who were otherwise going to precipitate upon the country, on the next Monday morning, such dire calamities as only President Wilson, with his rhetorical gifts, could adequately set forth in language of frightfulness. Congress accordingly gave the labor chiefs their eight-hour day. But it omitted the other half of the program, which was intended to do justice to the railroads. Presi-



UNCLE SAM: "He has kept me out of lots of trouble; he might do the same for you."

From the *News* (Dallas)

dent Wilson now says, however, that these other matters are to be taken up as the first business of the session when Congress meets again early in December.

**Doubtful Gain
for
Brotherhoods**

The first week of September found this surrender of the Government to a strike threat embodied in a Federal statute. The first week of October finds the subject under very thorough discussion, with Candidate Hughes making it—as indeed he should—a foremost issue in the campaign. With the end of the first week of November—election day is November 7—we shall know better than we do now what the country thinks of it. In the first week of December we shall have Congress in session again, and a real debate on hand. On the first day of January the law goes into effect, and many people besides the President's commission of three will be keenly interested in observing its operation. We have always wished to see railroad labor win its full rights, and have as favorable treatment as possible. It has blundered in making its alliance with a political party in the thick of a Presidential campaign. Railroad trainmen are not entitled to peculiar favors at the hands of the law. They have been badly advised. In the moral sense at least, they have sacrificed something of what they had previously gained by the plan of collective bargaining. They have put themselves, with the aid of a Democratic Congress, in a separate class, suspended somewhere between heaven and earth. They are not public employees, like mail-carriers, yet they have not the right of the ordinary trade union to make its own employment contracts. The railroad managers, like the heads of the brotherhoods, may be stubborn in bargaining, but they are men of their word, and they understand railroading. The brotherhoods are likely to be rather lonesome and sorry when they find that they have got to deal with politicians and Congressional committees instead of railroad officials.

**Rights
of Railroad
Property**

As for the railroads, although they are subject to a certain measure of supervision in the public interest, they are private business enterprises employing private capital; and there is no more reason why Congress should fix the wages of trainmen belonging to the brotherhood than of waiters who serve meals in the dining-cars. Nor, indeed, is there any more reason why Congress should interfere with the wages of Pullman porters and dining-car waiters, than with those paid to

waiters and porters in hotels. Inn-keeping was a business supervised under the law, on the same principle as that of the common carrier, long before railroads were invented. Commerce nowadays is being carried on by



HUGHES: "Peace: How I hate that word"
From the News (Dayton)

many agencies besides railroads. This new Eight-Hour Law discriminates unduly, is offensive in principle, and is wholly unsound in application. There is more involved in the objections to this Eight-Hour Law than the extent to which it may increase the cost of train operation.

**The Harmful
Appeal to
Force**

Railroad strikes are barbarous affairs, and public opinion should stand firmly for the uninterrupted movement of traffic. The government ownership and operation of railroads is not now a thing to be desired in the United States. Means, therefore, must be found for the peaceable settlement of disputes and the adjustment, from time to time, of wages and conditions. Until some other way is found, voluntary arbitration is to be upheld, and those who recklessly refuse it are to be condemned. The war madness in Europe has aroused the spirit of restlessness and turbulence throughout the world. Our labor troubles in this country are but an echo of that disposition to appeal to force

rather than to reason. The refusal of the railway brotherhoods to arbitrate grievances—with no excuse for their position except that they believed they could win a strike—has diminished confidence in the reasonableness of organized labor; and has therefore made it the more difficult for other labor unions to obtain the benefits of arbitration when employers hold the strong position. Thus in New York City last month, Mr. Shonts and the other heads of the local passenger transit companies firmly refused to arbitrate, declared that they would operate their lines regardless of the Amalgamated Union of Street Railway Employees, and announced that they would never again deal with the unions.

Loss of a Good Example Apparently both sides were somewhat culpable in the New York City strike. But if President Wilson had stood firmly for arbitration in the so-called national crisis, public right would have won a victory, and there would have been no strike at all, or at the worst, a fizzle. A study of Professor Ripley's article shows that arbitration at the hands of an able and independent group of men might have worked out a satisfactory solution. And if this example had been set, the traction magnates of New York City would in turn have been obliged by public opinion to yield the questions at issue to a similar method of settlement. One of the chief obstacles to winning against the men in New York City is now, as in the past, the tactless and irritating utterances of traction presidents and general managers. So far as we can understand a complicated situation, the street-railway strike in New York involves the breaking of their agreements by the men on one of the systems who had only a few weeks ago signed an agreement to arbitrate everything, but who afterwards went out upon a fresh issue. Generally speaking, the men have been more deserving of sympathy in these

New York transit situations than have the companies. But in these latest phases both sides have been arbitrary and perhaps blameworthy. Arbitration is fair to either side.

Seth Low, Advocate of Justice and Peace On the day that these lines were written, there were held at St. George's Church—in Stuyvesant Square, on the East Side of New York, where the rich and poor meet together—funeral services that marked the end of the life and career of a great citizen. Officially as president of the National Civic Federation, and personally as a public-spirited man



THE LATE SETH LOW, WHO DIED ON SEPTEMBER 17

of affairs, Mr. Low had been identified more prominently than anyone else in America with the cause of industrial peace. He had acted as arbitrator in many disputes between labor and capital, and had been deeply concerned over the railroad situation for months past. He was born in New York City, educated at Columbia University, was Mayor of Brooklyn while still a very young man, was then president of Columbia for a full decade, afterward served the Greater New York as Mayor, and went to The Hague as a delegate to the first International Conference. Although only sixty-six at his death, he had been a man of marked prominence in public affairs for more than forty years. Men of such training, unselfishness, and devotion to the best social and political interests cannot well be spared in times like these. Through all the ups and downs of the labor movement, Mr. Low, although a man of large wealth, had stood unswervingly for the right of workmen to organize in unions, to advance their interests by collective bargaining, to have their grievances fully investigated, and to have disputes peaceably settled by mediation or else by men acting as just and intelligent arbitrators. His fair-mindedness should be praised, and should be held up as an example to impatient and arbitrary men.

*Hours, and
Child Labor*

There was submitted to the voters in Maine, at the September election, a proposal to protect women and children in certain industrial and commercial employments by restricting their hours of labor to fifty-four a week—that is to say, fixing a nine-hour day. Such a law had passed the legislature and is now accepted by a popular vote of 4 to 1. Much discussion has followed President Wilson's dictum to the effect that the eight-hour day in principle has obtained the sanction of society and is in accord with economic tendency and the action of State legislatures. It is only in a few specified employments, however, that legislatures have in the interest of health or safety restricted the hours of labor in private callings. In some States there are no restrictions at all. Taking the country as a whole, such legal limitations affect only a slight percentage of workers. The general discussion seems to have overlooked the fact that there is a real eight-hour provision in the new federal Child Labor Law. This act, which prohibits the labor of children under fourteen in certain employments, restricts them to an eight-hour day between the ages of fourteen and sixteen. It was shown that in Southern cotton-mills there are at the present time children of twelve who are working eleven hours a day.

*A Wise
Tendency*

It will not be until September of next year that this Federal law will take effect; and consequently for eleven months more there will be thousands of children under sixteen working in factories for from ten to twelve hours a day. These factories will remain full of women and young girls working long hours. While such conditions prevail throughout the country, it is premature to say that the eight-hour principle has obtained the sanction of society or of the State legislatures. The railroad law, however, is not in any sense an act limiting the hours of labor; because it neither prohibits nor penalizes overtime. It merely declares that the present wage for ten hours' work will be paid for the first eight hours, and that overtime shall be reckoned pro rata on that basis. That there has been a general tendency in recent times toward shorter hours of labor is fortunately true as regards most trades and industries. It is a proper tendency and one to be encouraged, particularly as respects women workers in factories and stores.

*"Suffrage"
In High Favor*

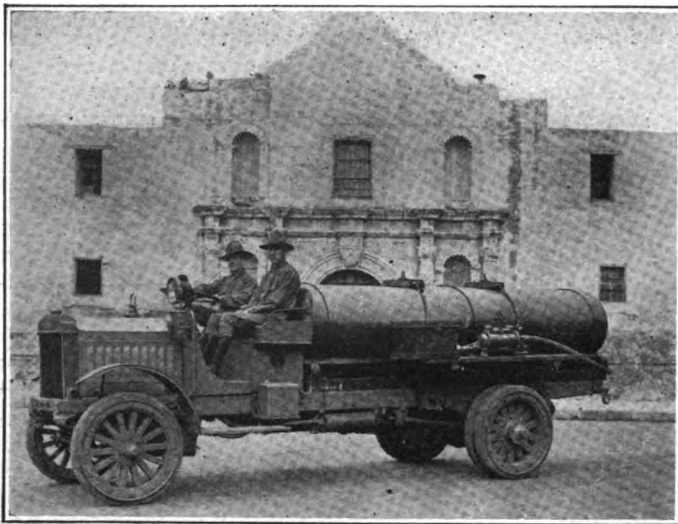
Unquestionably the new activity of women in politics has already had much to do with the safeguards that are being thrown about children in industrial pursuits, and also with the conditions under which women are employed in factories and other places. While it is not necessary for women to wait for the ballot in order to advocate and promote these reforms, it is just to admit that the present strength of the suffrage movement accords with progress in social betterment. The political committees and the leading candidates are vying with one another in paying compliments to women voters, and the main fight for the ballot seems to have been won in this country, as also apparently it has been won in England. Candidate Hughes is for suffrage by national act, and Candidate Wilson is for suffrage by State action.

*The
Mexican
Question*

Mr. Wilson's speech of acceptance gave much of its space to the Mexican question, but it was almost wholly in the realm of high motives and fine sentiments. The Mexican situation, on our part, is not merely a matter of sympathy with a neighboring country in distress, but also a question of taking wise practical steps. Just how the practice of the Administration has been in pursuance of its theory is what puzzles many minds. Our frontispiece shows a group of men who were



THE AWKWARD SQUAD
From the Ohio State Journal (Columbus)



TANK TRUCK USED BY THE UNITED STATES ARMY ON THE BORDER

(The photograph of this Riker tank truck was made in front of the historic Alamo in San Antonio, which city is the base of the Quartermaster Supply Department of the southwest)

sitting in conference last month at New London, Conn., as members of a joint commission. The three Americans—Secretary Lane, Judge Gray, and Dr. John R. Mott—are as individuals amply supported by the respect and confidence of their fellow-citizens. The three Mexicans also are men of political and business standing in their own country. Just what was the scope of the subjects with which this conference could deal effectively was one of the problems with which it had first to concern itself. If Carranza were strong and the Mexican Government firmly established, the work of the conference would not be so difficult. But, it may be added, if there were a well-established Mexican Government there would be no need of any of the extraordinary measures that have now to be employed. Villa came to life again last month with a somewhat sensational raid on the city of Chihuahua. The extent to which the movement against Carranza led by Felix Diaz has gained ground in portions of Mexico is the subject of conflicting reports. Meanwhile, Carranza has called a convention to revise the constitution and has announced that an election for President and members of Congress will be held in the near future.

*The Guardsmen
at the
Border*

It is now three months since the National Guard of the various States began to arrive at the Mexican border in response to the President's urgent call. The likelihood of using these

regiments in any kind of action became more remote as the weeks dragged along; but there had been no statement of the Administration's intentions regarding their ultimate recall. Meanwhile, during the past month, there was some shifting of regiments; and approximately 15,000 men have been ordered back to their State mobilization camps, mustered out of the Federal service, and permitted to return to their families and business pursuits. To take the places of these men, the War Department ordered to the border other regiments of the National Guard which had never left their local training camps. More than

1500 men also have obtained discharge upon the ground that they have persons dependent upon them for support. It was the purpose of the War Department to furnish opportunity for the entire organized militia to gain valuable training and experience under conditions approximating real service. Reports from the border regarding the personal comfort of the Guardsmen are still conflicting. Perhaps the real solution is that the men are "making the best of it cheerfully and as comfortably as possible," in "an abominable climate," and under conditions of mental and physical restraint which have caused "a great deal of restlessness and discontent." The quotations are from the *Bulletin* of the Seventh New York Regiment.



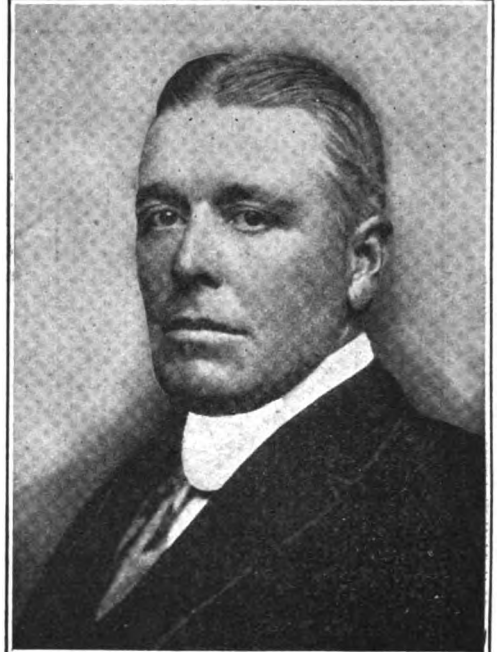
EUROPE: "WHAT? AN ARMY AND NO WAR!"
From the *First Illinois Cavalryman* (Brownsville, Tex.)



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HON. WILLIAM F. M'COMBS

(Democratic nominee in New York for the Senate)



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

JUDGE SAMUEL SEABURY

(Democratic nominee for Governor of New York)

*Democrats
Note
the New Drift*

The Maine election and the growing confidence of the united Republicans and Progressives had a marked effect upon the campaign plans and methods of the Wilson supporters. It had been believed through August at Washington that the President would be reelected upon his record by an overwhelming majority. But the Hughes campaign began to grow more definite, and from many parts of the country came the evidence that the Progressives and Republicans were finding it possible to coöperate. In Montana, for example, the Republicans had accepted as candidates, following an active contest in the primaries, a number of the most prominent Progressives, including Frank J. Edwards, as candidate for Governor, who was the Progressive candidate for that office in 1912. Henry McBride, who was nominated for Governor in the State of Washington, was also a Progressive. As the campaign advances, therefore, the Progressive party of the past four years finds itself reestablished as the progressive wing of the Republican party, and in many States and localities finds itself the dominating factor. This, of course, is conspicuously true of California. The President will not take the stump; but he will give close attention to the campaign, and will defend his positions.

Oct.—2

*New York
and Illinois
Primaries*

The September nominating primaries showed that this popular method of choosing candidates is by no means a farce or a failure. The New York primaries were held as late as the 19th. Governor Whitman was renominated by the Republicans, and he was also successful in the Progressive primaries, which the Democrats were extremely anxious to carry for Seabury, in order to make it appear that Wilson would be stronger with Progressives in New York State than Hughes. Judge Seabury, it should be borne in mind, was the unopposed Democratic candidate, and his personal record as a social and political reformer had made for him a natural claim upon the support of radical elements. While the vote in the Progressive primaries was not large, the victory of Governor Whitman was distinctly in the line of a reunion between Republicans and Progressives, and was therefore favorable to Hughes' prospects for carrying New York in November. The most interesting contest in the primaries was that of Mr. Robert Bacon for the Republican Senatorial nomination. As we explained last month, Mr. Calder had been long in the field and had not expected opposition. Mr. Bacon's canvass was brief but effective. He would have been easily successful but for Mr. Calder's control of



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GOVERNOR WHITMAN, OF NEW YORK
(Renominated by the Republicans)



HON. FRANK O. LOWDEN, OF ILLINOIS
(Republican nominee for Governor)

the enormous vote of his own city of Brooklyn. Mr. McCombs was nominated by the Democrats for the United States Senate. The Illinois primaries were held on September 13, and the Democrats renominated Governor Dunne as against the candidate of the Roger Sullivan faction. The successful contestant for the Republican nomination for Governor was Frank O. Lowden, well known as a former Congressman. Mr. Medill McCormick, one of the chief leaders of the Progressive movement four years ago, is nominated as a Congressman-at-large. The appearance of Justice Hughes in Chicago, Springfield, and Peoria, on September 19, brought out a measure of enthusiasm and confidence among the reunited wings of the party that gave promise of more stirring scenes during the remaining weeks of the campaign.

*Blease Beaten
in
South Carolina*

While the Republican party has no prospects in the States of the farther South, there are contests within the Democratic ranks that make the Southern primaries a matter of national interest. In South Carolina, for example, the former Governor, Cole Blease, famous as a pardoner of criminals, has been demanding another term of office. In the primaries of

August 29, there were five candidates for Governor, and Cole Blease had a long lead over any one of the others. But he did not have a clear majority of the votes cast. Next to him in the race was the present Governor, Richard I. Manning. Under the South Carolina law, it became necessary to take another ballot between the two highest candidates. The opponents of Blease rallied around Manning, and in the primary of September 12 Blease was beaten, though by a small majority. This was considered a victory for good government.

*Factions in
Texas*

The most remarkable of the recent Southern contests has been that in Texas, for the seat in the United States Senate now held by Charles A. Culberson. Governor Colquitt, though a leading Democrat, is a pronounced and bitter critic of President Wilson's Mexican policy. The Administration leaders—including such eminent Texans as Colonel House, Postmaster-General Burleson, and Attorney-General Gregory—were naturally supporting Mr. Culberson for another term and opposing Governor Colquitt. Congressman Henry, also an Administration supporter, sought promotion to the Senate. Governor Colquitt, after a stirring campaign,

won by a considerable plurality on July 23; but it was necessary to have a second primary between Colquitt and Culberson as the two highest. The three other candidates had all been Administration men, and naturally supported Culberson against Colquitt. Accordingly, on August 26, the incumbent, Senator Culberson, was victorious by a decisive majority over the rebellious and outspoken Governor. But in the July primaries several anti-administration men were nominated for the House.

*Dorsey's
Victory in
Georgia*

In some respects the most sensational of the recent Southern political contests was for the honor of being the next Governor of Georgia. Governor Harris expected a renomination in accordance with Georgia's time-honored custom. His friends declared that it was the last time a Confederate veteran would seek the Governorship. He was supported by prominent newspapers. There were two other well-known and seemingly competent candidates, in addition to the man who overwhelmingly beat them all put together. The victor was Hugh M. Dorsey, who some five years ago was a young lawyer in Atlanta unknown to politics, but who had been appointed to fill a vacancy in the office of criminal prosecutor just in time to give him prominence as the man who secured the conviction of Leo M. Frank. The Frank case (that of a young Jew tried for the murder of a girl) filled the sensational newspapers of the entire country. Mr. Dorsey was supported with characteristic energy by Thomas

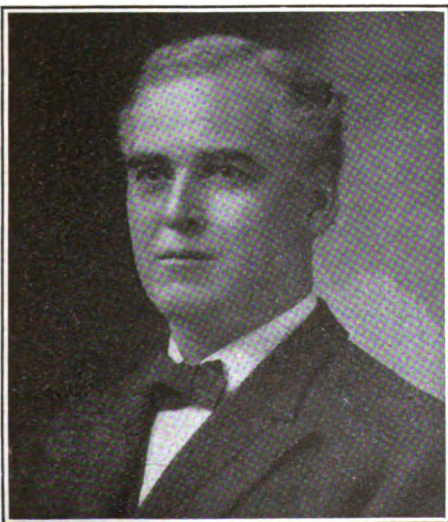


HON. HUGH M. DORSEY
(Who will be the next Governor of Georgia)

E. Watson, once the Populist candidate for the Presidency, whose position upon issues of politics and religion in Georgia has long been aggressive and who has a large following.

*Agitated
Florida*

The political agitations of Florida are quite as genuine as those of Maine or California; and this year they have been far more intense, although kept inside the Democratic allegiance. The man of the hour is a Baptist minister, Rev. Sidney J. Catts, who headed the poll in the Florida primary election for Governor on June 6. He had recently come to Florida from Alabama, and was almost wholly unknown when he entered the race for Governor against men of prominence and long public service in the State. Mr. Catts was called the "anti-Catholic candidate," and was supported by a society known as "the Guardians of Liberty," and a large following of Prohibitionists. Hon. W. B. Knott, who was second in the race, has brought court proceedings for a recount, and factional feeling has been wrought up to an unwanted pitch. The division of sentiment has become sectional; and they have gone so far as seriously to propose the division of the State. Northern Florida seems to be supporting Mr. Catts and favoring prohibition, while in southern Florida a different view predominates. Mr. Catts will run in any case, and will probably be elected.



SENATOR CHARLES A. CULBERSON, OF TEXAS
(Renominated in the Democratic primary)

*Congress
and the New
Taxes*

Speaker Champ Clark, who has been in Congress a long time, called the session that ended on September 8 the most arduous in his experience. We have mentioned from time to time its current activities since it organized for business in the first week of last December. The most important of the regular duties of Congress are comprised in the appropriation of money for public needs and in the finding of the money to meet the appropriations. Principally on account of the new navy and the enlarged army, expenditures for the next fiscal year will rise to something like the amount disbursed by the Government in the year from June '64 to June '65, when war outlays reached their maximum. It is possible that extra expenditure for protecting the Mexican border, amounting perhaps to \$150,000,000, may be covered by a loan. Otherwise, expenditures will be met by taxation. Mr. Speare, our regular financial contributor, sets forth (see page 395) the growth of Government expenditure and the new methods of taxation adopted by Congress in the Revenue bill that was completed only on the day before adjournment. Income-tax rates on larger incomes are much increased, taxes are to be levied upon inheritances, and the war-munition business is to yield some revenue to Uncle Sam. A protective tariff has been adopted for the benefit of the dye industry, but most tariff changes are to await the inquiries of the new Tariff Commission that President Wilson is authorized to appoint.

*Boards and
Commissions*

President Wilson found in operation the Interstate Commerce Commission. A bill to enlarge and reorganize it has passed the House and will pass the Senate early next session. Since Mr. Wilson came into office he has added the Federal Reserve Board, the Federal Trade Commission, and the Farm Loan Board. He is now authorized to appoint a Tariff Commission of five members; and the new Shipping bill that became a law through the President's signature on September 7 provides for still another appointive body of five members, to be called the Shipping Board. A Workmen's Compensation bill, to apply to Government employees, which is expected to benefit several hundred thousand persons, calls for the appointment of a standing Board of three members. The Shipping bill, though different in scope from that originally proposed and urged by Secretary McAdoo, has the same general object, which is to

promote the foreign trade of the United States and to restore the American merchant marine. The \$50,000,000 appropriated will not pay for many ships; but the Board in the exercise of its varied functions may help to promote our commerce and aid in solving the shipping problem.

*Repeals
Authorized*

As the Revenue bill was in its later stages, amendments were added to it which authorized the President to use retaliatory measures against the trade and commerce of countries interfering with American commercial rights. While certain of these amendments were withdrawn at the last, the bill as it became a law gave the President a large discretion by means of which to protect American rights. The so-called "blacklist" adopted by England and her allies has been the subject of great complaint. English trade with this country, however, is upon so enormous a scale that the British authorities are unable to see why the United States should object seriously to having its business with all other countries strictly regulated by British officials. We have made the profound mistake of having spent a year or two in arguing about certain things that do not admit of discussion. The time to have stopped once and for all the interference with our mails, for example, was immediately upon the first occurrence. Not to have stopped such interference promptly was to have acquiesced. The same thing is true of most of the other interferences about which our State Department has written countless "notes" of argumentative complaint.

*Our Enormous
Foreign Trade*

Even the amazing figures of 1915 of our export and import trade are being exceeded by the foreign business of the present year. In the first seven months of 1916 the exports and imports of the United States reached a total of \$4,394,000,000. This sum exceeded the transactions of the entire year 1914. More striking yet in its increase is the record of exports. From January to July of this year we have shipped to Europe goods to the value of \$2,926,000,000, or nearly a billion dollars more than in the corresponding period of 1915. The increase in imports was just about half as much. Our best customer in this unprecedented business is the British Empire, which, with its dependencies, has taken \$1,400,000,000 worth of shipments during the seven months, the imports from the same source amounting to only

\$486,000,000. With total exports nearly twice as great as the imported merchandise, the balance of trade is vastly in favor of the United States. Prior to the great war the largest foreign trade balance favorable to America was obtained in 1908, in which year this country exported \$666,000,000 more than it imported. Compare with this the excess in our favor of nearly one billion and a half in only seven months of the present year. A notable feature of the record during this period is that our trade with Japan has nearly doubled over the previous year. That country sent us more goods than we sent back by some \$37,000,000 during the seven months.

Security Prices Rise Rapidly Stimulated by these enormous sales to Europe, by highly favorable reports of earnings from industrial companies, especially steel manufacturers, by highly prosperous returns from the railroads, and, perhaps, by the suggestion from Maine in favor of Mr. Hughes, the stock market began in September an excited and unusually protracted rise in prices. Beginning with the copper companies (which, with the price of the metal ranging around 27c. a pound, have been making greater profits than ever before), passing rapidly to the motor concerns whose securities are listed on the exchange, and then with a mighty rush to the steel-making corporations, prices have been moved up during the month to points which showed high records for scores of different securities. The most notable feature of this war boom in prices was the crossing of par by the common stock of the United States Steel Corporation. The highest point ever reached in previous years by this most representative of our industrial securities was 94½. In early September the stock rose above 100 and on September 18 sold above 108. The net earnings for the corporation reported for July were no less than \$31,500,000, and the August earnings were estimated to exceed this by a million and a half. Not only is the demand for steel exceeding the supply, in spite of the huge monthly output, but the companies are obtaining the best prices for their product that have been seen for a generation.

The New Motor Stocks It is difficult for the average man to realize the magnitude of the financial and manufacturing operations of the great motor companies, the securities of which have come on the stock exchange only within the last five years. Mr.

Henry Ford's Arabian Nights corporation is owned, of course, by himself and a very few associates, and is totally unknown in stock exchange dealings. Only less marvelous than Mr. Ford's business is that of the General Motors Company, the Willys-Overland Company, the Maxwell Company, the Studebaker Corporation, the Chevrolet, the Dodge concern, and others. In the present rise of securities the common stock of the General Motors Company sold on September 16 at \$750 per share, a higher price than was ever quoted for a stock on the Exchange, except in the abnormal flurry of the Northern Pacific during the panic days of 1901, when the stock of that railroad was cornered momentarily.

The Amazing Motor Industry The new section of the Stock Exchange—"the motor stocks"—has so advanced in importance and size as to call attention again to the unprecedented growth of the business of making automobiles. Although last year the new industry seemed to have shot up to a maximum, or, as most people thought, beyond a safe maximum, 1916 brought a far larger increase of production than any previous year has seen. In 1909, with the new instrument of transportation fairly established, 126,000 cars were made. In 1915, 700,000 were turned out, and in 1916, 1,300,000! The leading makers are announcing still further increases for next year. Of the 1916 output of 1,300,000 passengers cars, more than one million will come from seven concerns—the Ford, General Motors, Willys-Overland, Chevrolet, Dodge, Studebaker, and Maxwell. In less than seven years the annual value of automobiles produced in the United States has increased from \$250,000,000 to over a billion dollars. The gross earnings of a single company, the General Motors, are larger than the receipts of a great, prosperous railroad such as the Chicago and Northwestern. With this frantic advance in automobile production and the corresponding daring speculation in motor securities, there have been serious misgivings on the part of cool observers. One factor of safety in the financial situation is the absence of bonded indebtedness in most instances. In the early days of the expansion of the industry, bankers were so distrustful of the permanence of its prosperity that capitalization was kept within decent bounds and generally restricted to issues of preferred and common stock. Thus, with the almost unbelievable prosperity that has come, the prin-



AT THE JUNCTION OF BROADWAY, FIFTH AVENUE, AND TWENTY-THIRD STREET, NEW YORK CITY

(During the transit strike in New York passengers were carried in all kinds of motor vehicles. In the illustration will be seen a Fifth avenue double-deck motor 'bus, and in the foreground a great motor truck used temporarily for carrying employees. Many thousands of automobiles and trucks are thus available when street cars stop running)

cial companies have large actual tangible assets behind their stock issues with few debts, and, in several instances, enormous holdings of actual cash. The Ford balance-sheet shows \$50,000,000 in cash, the General Motors \$26,000,000, and Willys-Overland more than \$20,000,000.

Motor Trucks in War

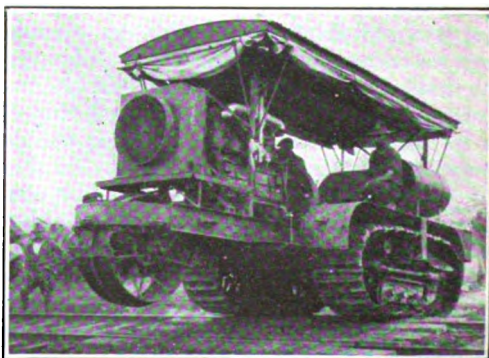
The figures of car production given in the preceding paragraph are for passenger cars. Only less remarkable is the growth of the truck and delivery wagon business. Constantly new uses are found for the automobile commercial vehicle. The jitney and the truck seem destined to be the public's best resource in breakdowns of transportation systems through strikes or other causes. The most considerable and picturesque new field is, of course, the employment of motors in war, and the article in this issue of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS by Mr. Hutchinson gives a vivid impression of the indispensable services rendered our soldiers by automobiles and motor trucks on the border and in Mexico. In the middle of September, with the renewal of the British drive on the Somme, there came highly colored accounts of a new type of heavily armored motor truck equipped with machine-guns and used in the advance on the German trenches. This new engine of war was described as of weird and monstrous appearance, and as continuing on its relentless way across shell holes, trenches, and barbed-wire defenses, even mowing down trees and crushing the walls of houses in its juggernaut progress.

The "Caterpillar" Tractors

The early reports of English correspondents cast a veil of mystery over the mechanical features of these "land battleships," intimating that they were of entirely new design and made from pieces shipped from a number of different factories to protect the secret of their construction. It seems probable, however, that the vehicles were ordinary caterpillar traction engines, many, if not all, of them shipped from Peoria, Illinois, with a new type of armored covering and body. Such tractors have been used in America for years to plough or to ditch in swampy or otherwise difficult ground. Their peculiar method of locomotion, by means of bands having corrugated surfaces next to the ground, and rails on the inner and upper side for the wheels of the vehicle, gives them the name caterpillar. They virtually lay their own track in sections on the endless-chain principle. The type made in Illinois and shipped to the British Government is equipped with an engine of 120 horsepower, and can move at two speeds, about 2½ miles or 4 miles an hour.

A Bird Treaty with Canada

In the last days of August the Senate ratified a treaty with Canada providing joint protection for most of the migratory birds crossing the border of the two countries—a most significant gain in the work of bird protection. President John B. Burnham, of the Ameri-



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THE HOLT "CATERPILLAR" TRACTOR

(As described on this page and as seen in ordinary American use. It weighs about fourteen tons)

can Game Protective Association, Dr. Hornaday, and various organizations of sportsmen and farmers, had been working for such an international arrangement for three years. They had the strong assistance of Mr. Henry Ford, of Detroit, and, in Congress, of Senator George P. McLean, of Connecticut. The main objects of the treaty are that no bird important to agriculture shall be shot at any time; that the open season for shooting game birds shall in no case be more than three and a half months in the year, and that each country shall so arrange its seasons for shooting as to prevent killing during the breeding seasons. The treaty is really a great victory for the men who have been fighting for the conservation of wild life. It has an indirect importance in its appeal to the sportsman on this side of the border, where one hears not infrequently objection to observing our own game laws on the score of injustice in sparing such birds as woodcock in New England when they are not correspondingly protected in other parts of their flight.

Infantile Paralysis

The epidemic of infantile paralysis, beginning its ravages early in the summer, never attained alarming proportions outside of the States of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Connecticut. There were more than the average number of cases in Illinois and a few other States, but in the country at large the disease was not more prevalent than in former years. Cases were reported to the United States Public Health Service from thirty-three States. It was thought necessary to postpone the fall opening of schools and colleges for several weeks. In New York City the death rate for the entire duration of the epidemic up to September 15 was almost precisely 25 per cent. (2162 deaths in 8650 cases). The Health Department of the city has continued to act on the assumption that the disease is transmitted by human beings through personal contact. The strict enforcement of quarantine regulations led to much personal inconvenience and doubtless to some hardship in various places, especially in New York State. Meanwhile, it is just as well to bear in mind that other countries have had far more severe visitations of this malady than the United States has ever suffered. In Sweden, for example, it has long been a dreaded plague, and the disappointment there at the failure to learn its cause is quite as great as it is in this country.

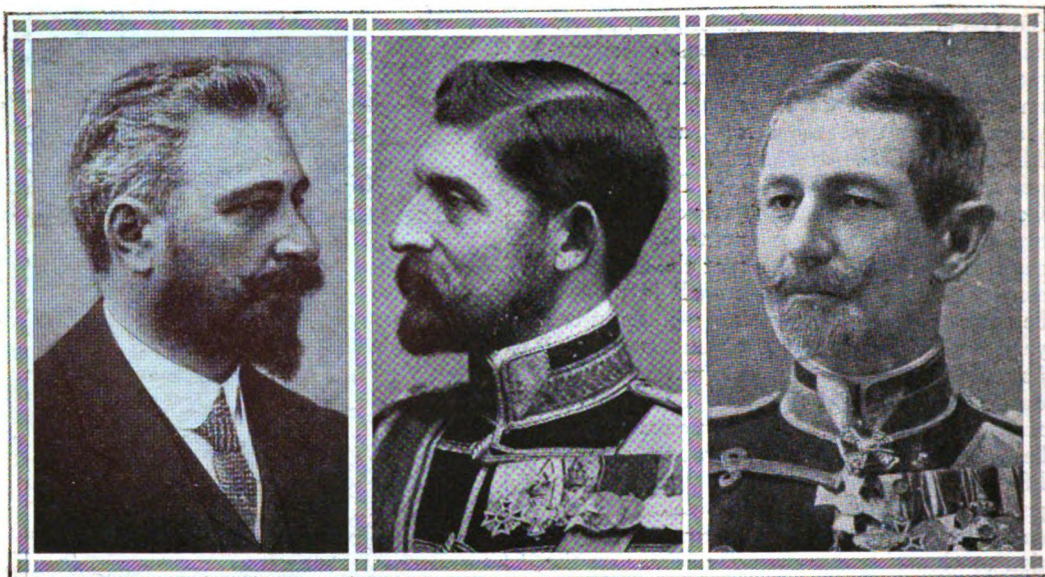


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GENERAL BRUSILOV, RUSSIA'S GREAT COMMANDER
IN THE OFFENSIVE MOVEMENT

Rumania in the War

Our readers will note in Mr. Simonds' article (page 399) the importance that he attaches to the declarations of war made by Italy and Rumania. Italy had been in the war since May 23, 1915, it is true, but only as an enemy of Austria. It was known that a break with Germany as Austria's powerful ally could not be postponed much longer; and the announcement of her hostile attitude and intent on August 27 surprised no one. Rumania's declaration, however, against Austria, made within twenty-four hours after Italy's action, was the most sensational news of the summer. It meant a powerful accession to the forces of the Entente in the Balkans. Coöperation with the Russians to the north and east and with the French and British, in Greece, to say nothing of the possibility of Greece herself coming into the war on the side of the Allies, might defeat the Bulgar-Teuton plans and drive back the armies that had overrun Serbia last year. At any rate it seemed to say to the world that Rumania, having deliberated for months, had concluded once for all that her prospects of national aggrandizement were to be enhanced by an Entente alliance rather than by a Teutonic one.



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PREMIER BRATIANO

KING FERDINAND

GENERAL AVERESCU

THE RUMANIAN PREMIER, KING, AND CHIEF MILITARY LEADER

The Quid pro Quo What do they hope to get out of it? is the brutally direct question that the world is asking to-day, as it asked on the day when the news came that Italy and Rumania had assumed new responsibilities in relation to the war. A greater Rumania undoubtedly enters the vision of Rumanian statesmen, as Mr. Simonds suggests, and something of what that includes is briefly indicated in the article on Transylvania (page 410). Great Rumanian populations are living beyond the national bounds, ruled by alien dynasties. It cannot be doubted that national ambitions and aspirations had much to do with the decision at Bucharest in August. It is generally believed that Russia is to have Constantinople and the Bosphorus, and as a part of the understanding among the Allies it is not unreasonable to suppose that concessions in Bessarabia may be made to Rumania. As for Italy, there is hardly any question that by taking an active part in aiding her allies in the Balkans she hopes for territorial compensation in the Near East when peace is concluded. Asia Minor has already been conceded to her—by the newspaper correspondents.

The Bad Estate of Greece As pointed out by Mr. Simonds in this month's article on the war, the tragic aspects of the dilemma in which Greece finds herself are intensified from day to day. The long-awaited fall of the Zaimis ministry, on September 13, was followed by many indications that the country was ready to enter the war on the side of the Entente Allies. After a refusal on the part of M. Dimitracopulos, former Minister of Justice, to form a cabinet, the task was committed to M. Kalogheropoulos. Within a few days after his acceptance of the portfolio it was semi-officially announced that demands had been made on Germany for the release of the Greek army corps made prisoners by the Bulgarians and Germans at Kavala. It had been stated that these troops were to be transported to Germany. In England this procedure was called kidnapping; and the indignant outcry that arose from the British press when it was learned that 25,000 Greek soldiers were to be kept out of harm's way by the kind forethought of their Bulgarian and Teutonic protectors was another reminder that John Bull's sense of humor is not quite the same as other people's.



GENERAL SARRAIL INSPECTS THE RUSSIAN TROOPS WHO JOINED THE ALLIED ARMY AT SALONICA

(For many months the Allies have been preparing an army at Salonica, with the avowed purpose of some day starting an advance which might eliminate Turkey from the war by cutting the railroad through Bulgaria over which vast supplies from Germany are transported. Besides the original French and British contingents, there are now at this Greek port the reorganized Serbian army and troops sent from Italy and Russia. Within recent weeks Greek volunteers in large numbers have joined this polyglot army under General Sarrail)

RECORD OF THE EVENTS IN THE WAR

(From August 19 to September 20, 1916)

The Last Part of August

August 19.—Two British light cruisers, *Nottingham* and *Falmouth*, are sunk by German submarines in the North Sea; the German battleship *Westfalen* is damaged by a torpedo from a British submarine.

August 20.—It is learned that Italian and Russian armies have landed at Salonica, Greece, to operate jointly with the British, French, and Serbians.

August 22.—The Bulgarian resistance to the Allied drive—either imminent or actually begun—takes the form of a counter-offensive on both wings.

August 23.—The German merchant submarine *Deutschland* arrives at the mouth of the Weser on her way to Bremen, having made the voyage from Baltimore in three weeks.

August 24.—The French complete their occupation of the village of Maurepas, north of the Somme.

The Russian War Department announces the recapture of Mush, in Armenia, which had been taken by the Turks on August 8; the Russians appear to have frustrated a Turkish attempt to encircle the left wing of their Caucasian army and to have regained the initiative at all points in Asia Minor.

Subscriptions to the new British 5 per cent. loan in the United States are closed, the \$250,-

000,000 being over-subscribed within three days.

August 27.—Italy declares that it considers itself from August 28 at war with Germany; although at war with Austria, Germany's ally, since May 23, 1915, Italy had maintained correct relations with Germany.

Rumania enters the war on the side of the Allies and begins hostilities against Austria-Hungary; the Rumanian statement declares that Rumanians in Austrian territory are exposed to the hazards of war, that by intervening Rumania believes she can shorten the war, and that Rumania places herself with those powers that can assist her in realizing her national ideals.

Bulgarian troops occupy all but one of the Greek forts about Kavala.

August 29.—Field-Marshal von Hindenburg becomes Chief of the Staff of the German armies, succeeding General von Falkenhayn.

August 30.—Austro-Hungarian troops are withdrawn before the Rumanian armies, which seize all of the five Carpathian passes into Hungary and occupy Kronstadt and Hermannstadt, the two most important cities of Transylvania.

The Russians renew their offensive against the Austro-German lines in Galicia, after comparative quiet lasting two weeks; the official statement declares that nearly 16,000 prisoners were taken.

Greek revolutionists at Salonica seize the barracks of the Greek infantry, proclaim a pro-

visional government, and call upon the people to combine with the Allies and drive the Bulgarians out of Greece.

The First Week of September

September 2.—The British and French Governments demand of Greece the control of the postal and telegraph systems, alleging that their enemies receive information; King Constantine and his ministers decide to comply.

September 3.—The British and French renew their offensive north of the Somme River, France, advancing along a front of six miles and occupying four villages.

September 4.—The French continue their attack upon the German lines at the Somme, and are successful on a front of twelve miles south of the river.

Bulgarian and German troops invade Rumania in the Dobrudja district—the territory on the Black Sea which Rumania seized from Bulgaria during the second Balkan war.

September 7.—The Rumanian fortress of Tutrakan is captured by Bulgarian and German troops, 20,000 prisoners being taken when the Rumanians are unable to retreat across the Danube.

The Rumanian forces take the important Bulgarian city of Orsova, at the Iron Gate of the Danube, where Rumania, Hungary, and Serbia meet.

The Second Week of September

September 8.—Russian troops arrive in the Dobrudja district, joining with Rumanian forces in an effort to check the German-Bulgarian invasion.

September 9.—British troops continue their assault on the German lines in the Somme region and occupy the whole of the village of Ginchy.

Announcement is made at Ottawa of a new \$100,000,000 Canadian war loan, bearing 5 per cent. interest, and running fifteen years.

September 10.—The Bulgarian-German army invading Rumania captures Silistria, the second Rumanian fortress on the Danube in the Dobrudja district.

September 11.—It is learned that the command of the German lines in France has been rearranged, with Duke Albrecht of Wurttemberg in command of the northern sector, Crown Prince Ruprecht of Bavaria in command of the central sector (including the Somme), and the German Crown Prince continuing in command of the southern (Verdun) sector.

Belgian forces in German East Africa after ten days' fighting take Tabora, the principal city of the colony.

September 12.—In the Somme region, on a front of three and three-quarter miles south of Combles, the French make the greatest gain of any single day since the offensive began.

In the French Chamber of Deputies, Finance Minister Ribot introduces a bill for a second 5 per cent. war loan.

September 13.—The Zaimis ministry in Greece resigns; M. Dimitrasopoulos (former Minister of Justice) agrees to form a cabinet if his program is accepted by the Allied governments.

It is declared at London and Paris that the offensive of the British and French armies at the

Somme has carried them beyond the original system of German trenches.

September 14.—An official German statement declares that the commander of the fourth Greek Army Corps (stationed at Seres, Drama, and Kavala), having appealed to the German commander for food and protection from Allied pressure, will be interned in Germany until Greece is freed of invaders.

September 14-15.—The British renew their attack against the Germans at the Somme, with the greatest success since the battle began on July 1; they capture German trenches on a front of six miles, including three villages and important high ground north of Combles.

The British use for the first time a new style of armored and armed motor truck, capable of crossing trenches and shell holes.

September 15.—A German official statement declares that a great battle in the Dobrudja district of Rumania ended in the complete destruction of a Rumanian and Russian army, by Bulgarians and Germans under Field-Marshal von Mackensen.

French dispatches indicate that the Allied offensive in the Balkans (General Sarraill's army of British, French, Serbians, Russians, and Italians) has been renewed with advances at all points.

The Italians begin a new offensive against the Austrians on the Carso Plateau, in the campaign against Trieste.

Great Britain adopts measures for restricting the trade of the United States with Holland and the Scandinavian countries, in certain prohibited articles, on the ground that imports of European neutrals—above a specified normal allowance—are likely to reach Britain's enemies.

Mr. Lloyd George, British Secretary of War, issues a statement regarding the use of information obtained through the censorship of neutral mails; he declares that honest business interests and trade secrets of American merchants and manufacturers are safe.

September 16.—A new cabinet is formed in Greece, headed by Nikolas Kalogeropoulos.

A German news agency declares that during August 126 hostile merchant ships and 35 neutral vessels carrying contraband were destroyed by submarines of the Central Powers or by mines; from September 3 to September 11, 26 hostile and 7 neutral ships were similarly sunk.

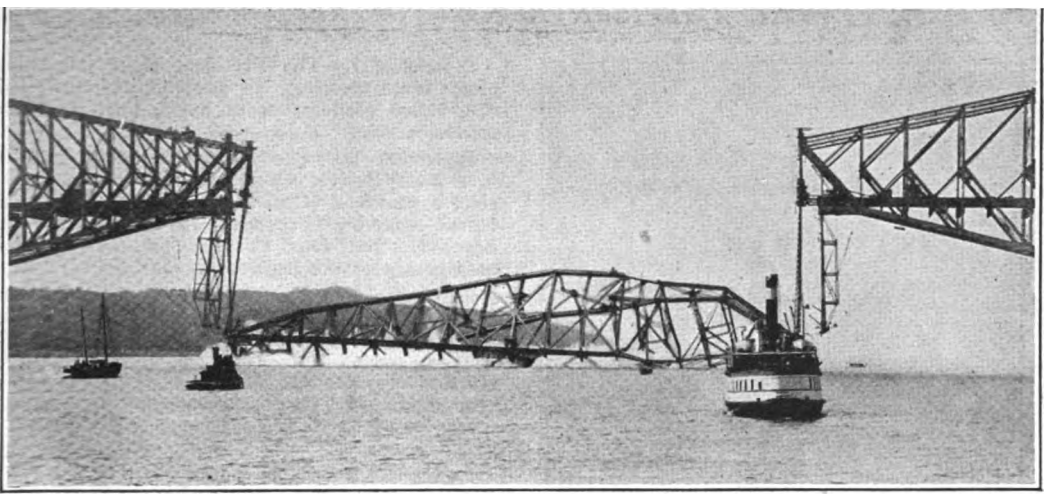
September 17.—The Russians resume their attempts to take Halicz, key to Lemberg, Galicia.

September 18.—Franco-Russian troops comprising the left wing of the Allied army in northwestern Macedonia occupy the town of Florina, after a battle with Bulgarians lasting two days; Serbian troops also make progress.

September 20.—Rumanian troops invading Transylvania suffer a reverse by Austrians, but the German-Bulgarian invasion of Dobrudja is declared to have been checked.

Greece is reported to have demanded of Germany the release of Greek troops removed from Kavala; Allied officials make public documents indicating that the Greek troops desired to surrender to them rather than to the Germans.

A compilation of American contributions to war relief shows a total of \$28,896,277, one-third of which was for Belgian relief.



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THE CENTER SPAN OF THE QUEBEC BRIDGE FALLING WHILE BEING RAISED TO POSITION

(For the second time the attempt to bridge the St. Lawrence River at Quebec has failed. In 1907 a section nearer shore collapsed, causing the loss of sixty lives. On the 11th of last month the bridge was again nearing completion when the center span fell to the bottom of the river. This span—640 feet long and weighing 5100 tons—had been constructed separately and towed on pontoons to position, and was being raised to its proper level when an accident occurred, the nature of which is as yet unknown. The picture shows the span falling into the water, the photographer having set his camera to record the hoisting. The bridge is designed principally for railroad traffic, in an effort to bring to Quebec a share of the commerce going in recent years mostly to Montreal.)

RECORD OF OTHER EVENTS

(From August 19 to September 20, 1916)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

August 19.—The Senate passes the Workmen's Compensation bill, providing disability and death allowances for half a million Government employees.

August 22.—In the Senate, general debate upon the Emergency Revenue bill is begun, Mr. Simmons (Dem., N. C.) defending the financial record of the present Congress, and Messrs. Smoot (Rep., Utah) and Penrose (Rep., Pa.) severely criticizing it.

August 25.—The House repasses the Army appropriation bill, without the provision objected to by the President.

August 26.—In the Senate debate on the Revenue bill, Mr. Underwood (Dem., Ala.) refuses to be bound by his party caucus and criticizes the proposed duty on dyes.

August 29.—Both branches assemble in the House chamber and are addressed by the President regarding the threatened railroad strike; he urges immediate legislation establishing an eight-hour day for railroad operators, creating a commission to watch the result, and providing for a public investigation of future controversies.

August 31.—The Senate unanimously adopts, as an amendment to the Revenue bill, a provision permitting the President to invoke retaliatory trade measures against belligerents discriminating against products of the United States. . . . In the House, Chairman Adamson (Dem., Ga.), of the Committee on Interstate Commerce, introduces an eight-hour bill acceptable to the President and to the representatives of the four railway brotherhoods.

September 1.—The House, by vote of 239 to 56, passes the emergency bill establishing a basic eight-hour day for railway operators, and creating a commission of three members to report upon the working of the measure; 70 Republicans vote with the Democratic majority, while 2 Democrats vote against the measure.

September 2.—The Senate passes without amendment the Railroad Eight-Hour bill by vote of 43 to 28; only 2 Democrats vote against the measure, and 1 Republican votes for it. . . .

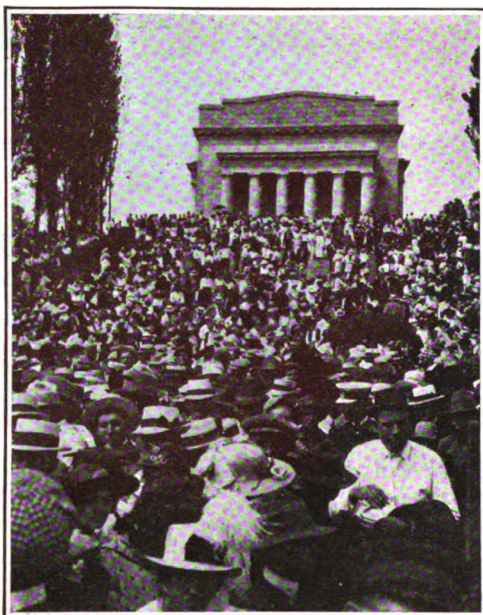
The House passes the Webb bill, exempting from anti-trust laws combinations of American exporters for the promotion of foreign trade.

September 4.—Both branches agree to the conference report on the Workmen's Compensation bill.

September 5.—The Senate, by vote of 42 to 16, passes the Administration's Emergency Revenue bill, designed to raise \$205,000,000 annually from special taxes; 5 Republicans vote with the Democrats for the measure.

September 7.—Both branches adopt the conference report on the special Revenue bill, dropping the most drastic of the amendments which empowered the President to retaliate against belligerent governments that interfere with American rights. . . . The Senate ratifies the treaty with Denmark providing for the purchase of the Danish West Indies.

September 8.—The first session of the Sixty-fourth Congress comes to an end, after nine months' legislative work and with appropriations totaling \$1,626,439,209.



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THE LINCOLN MEMORIAL AT HODGENVILLE, KY.

(The memorial, built over the log-cabin birthplace of Lincoln, was formally turned over to the nation on Labor Day. President Wilson delivered a speech of acceptance.)

AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

August 26.—In the second Texas Democratic primary (the first being without decisive result), Senator Culberson is renominated, defeating ex-Governor Colquitt.

August 28.—While President Wilson still confers with railroad presidents and the leaders of the employees, he learns that a strike order has been issued to take effect on September 4.

August 29.—The President signs the Army and Navy appropriation bills and the Philippine bill. . . . In the California Republican primary, Governor Johnson defeats Willis H. Booth for the United States Senate nomination.

August 31.—Ex-President Roosevelt delivers his first speech in the campaign, at Lewiston, Me., giving his reasons for believing that President Wilson's reelection would be a grave misfortune.

September 2.—Upon the passage by Congress of the eight-hour law for railway operators, and the announcement of the President that he would sign the bill, the leaders of the trainmen call off the strike set for September 4. . . . President Wilson is formally notified of his renomination at Shadow Lawn, his summer residence at Long Branch, N. J.; in his speech of acceptance he points to the achievements of the Democratic Administration.

September 3.—President Wilson signs the Eight-Hour Law for railroad operators.

September 4.—The Lincoln Memorial at Hodgenville, Ky., built over the log-cabin birthplace of the martyr President, is formally presented to the nation by the Lincoln Farm Association; President Wilson delivers the speech of acceptance.

September 7.—The President signs the Shipping bill, creating a government-controlled \$50,000,000 corporation to build, buy, or lease merchant ships.

September 11.—The election in Maine results in a sweeping victory for the Republicans, who elect a governor (Carl E. Milliken), two United States Senators (Frederick Hale and Bert M. Fernald), and four Congressmen, and control both houses of the legislature.

September 12.—In the South Carolina Democratic primary, Governor Richard I. Manning is renominated, defeating former Governor Cole L. Blease. . . . In the Georgia Democratic primary, Governor Nat E. Harris is defeated for renomination by Hugh M. Dorsey.

September 13.—In the Illinois primary, Governor Dunne (Dem.) is renominated, and ex-Congressman Frank O. Lowden is chosen by the Republicans.

September 19.—In the New York primary, Governor Whitman wins the Republican and Progressive nominations, Judge Seabury being chosen by the Democrats; the contests for the United States Senate nominations are won by William F. McCombs (Dem.) and ex-Congressman William M. Calder (Rep.), who defeats Robert Bacon.

FOREIGN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

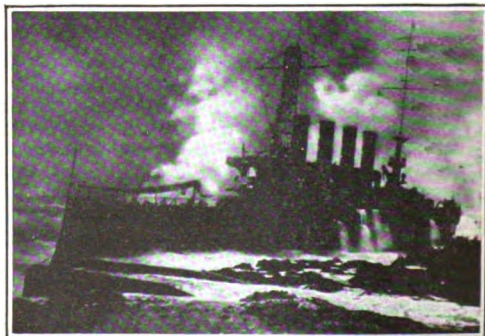
August 24.—The Danish Landsting (upper house of Parliament) votes, 39 to 7, that if the proposed sale of the Danish West Indies to the United States cannot be postponed until after the war the question must be settled by a general election.

September 15.—The voters of British Columbia, Canada, adopt prohibition by a large majority.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

August 19.—It is learned that China has protested to Japan against the sending of two thousand troops to Eastern Mongolia because of a recent clash there between Chinese and Japanese troops.

August 24.—A protocol is signed at Washington by representatives of the United States and Haiti, embodying details of the treaty recently agreed to.



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THE U. S. CRUISER "MEMPHIS," WRECKED BY A SUDDEN AND VIOLENT STORM IN THE HARBOR OF SANTO DOMINGO ON AUGUST 29

September 3.—Japan presents to China four demands for a settlement of the clash between Chinese and Japanese troops at Cheng-Chiatun, in Eastern Mongolia, on August 13; besides indemnities and punishment of Chinese officers, Japan demands the withdrawal of Chinese troops from the district and the granting to Japan of police rights in Inner Mongolia.

September 7.—The United States Senate ratifies the treaty with Denmark, providing for the purchase of the Danish West Indies for \$25,000,000.

September 14.—The State Department at Washington announces that both Japan and Russia have given assurances that the new Russo-Japanese convention is in no sense designed to modify the "open door" in China.

AMERICAN RELATIONS WITH MEXICO

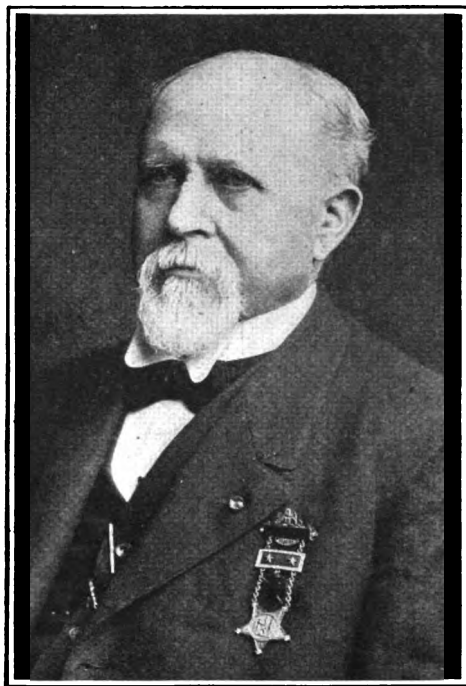
August 22.—Franklin K. Lane (Secretary of the Interior), Judge George Gray, and Dr. John R. Mott are named as the American members of the Joint Commission.

August 26.—It is announced at a border headquarters that 1508 National Guardsmen, with persons dependent upon them for support, have been discharged upon application.

August 28.—The War Department orders 12,000 National Guardsmen of Kentucky, Ohio, and Vermont from mobilization camps to the Mexican border.

August 30.—The War Department orders the return to State mobilization camps of fourteen regiments of the National Guard (15,000 men) on the border; it is assumed that the movement has a bearing on the threatened railroad strike.

September 6.—The six members of the American-Mexican Joint Commission meet at New



WILLIAM J. PATTERSON, OF PITTSBURGH, NEW
COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF OF THE G. A. R.

London, Conn., in the first of a series of conferences to adjust Mexican problems.

September 7.—The War Department directs that those regiments of the National Guard recently ordered from the Mexican border to State mobilization camps shall be mustered out of the federal service.

September 14.—General Carranza calls an election for delegates to a national assembly which will adopt a revised constitution and take steps preliminary to the election of a President and a Congress. . . . The Tennessee National Guard (2000 men) is ordered to the border for patrol duty.

September 16.—An attack is made upon Chihuahua by armed forces believed to be led by General Villa himself; after having seized the public buildings, the bandits are defeated and driven out of the city by Federal troops under General Trevino.

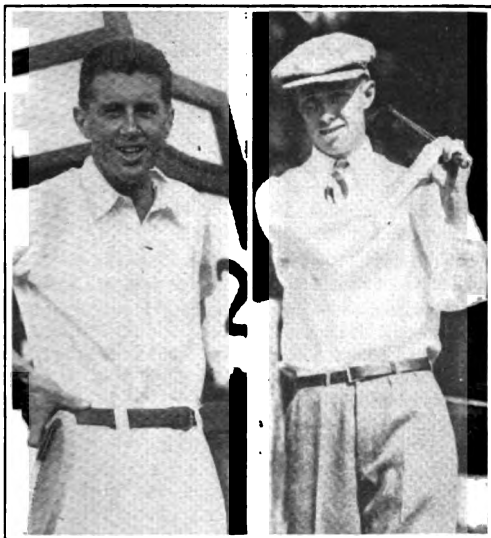
OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

August 25.—Victor Carlstrom flies in an aeroplane off the Virginia coast, with a passenger, 661 miles in 8 hours and 40 minutes actual flying time, with two stops.

August 29.—The United States cruiser *Memphis* (formerly the *Tennessee*) is driven ashore by a heavy sea at Santo Domingo City, and becomes wreck; 36 men lose their lives.

September 1.—William J. Patterson, of Pittsburgh, is elected Commander-in-Chief of the Grand Army of the Republic at the National Encampment, Kansas City.

September 3.—Sir Ernest Shackleton arrives at Punta Arenas, Argentina, with the members of his Antarctic expedition who had been marooned



Photographs by American Press Association

R. NORRIS WILLIAMS, CHARLES EVANS, JR.,
OF PHILADELPHIA OF CHICAGO

THE NEW TENNIS AND GOLF CHAMPIONS

(Mr. Williams won the national lawn-tennis championship in the tournament at New York City, on September 5. Mr. Evans won the national amateur golf championship on the links of the Merion Cricket Club, near Philadelphia, on September 9. Both players defeated last year's champions in their final matches.)



© Bain News Service

CHARLES G. HERBERMANN

HORACE WHITE

SAMUEL W. PENNYPACKER

MAJ.-GEN. A. L. MILLS

(Dr. Herbermann, who died on August 24, was for forty-six years professor of Latin at the College of the City of New York, and gained distinction also as editor-in-chief of the Catholic Encyclopædia. Mr. White was editor of the *Chicago Tribune* for some years following the Civil War. In 1874 he joined the staff of the *New York Evening Post*, afterwards becoming editor-in-chief. He died on September 16. Governor Pennypacker had for many years been a leading figure in the Republican politics of Pennsylvania, serving as Governor from 1903 to 1907. At the time of his death, last month, he was a member of the Public Service Commission. General Mills was chief of the Bureau of Militia Affairs, and as superintendent of the Military Academy at West Point had much to do with the enlargement of that institution.)

on Elephant Island, his fourth attempt at rescue having been successful.

September 5.—The national lawn-tennis championship is won by R. N. Williams, of Philadelphia, in the matches at Forest Hills, N. Y., defeating William M. Johnston, of San Francisco.

September 7.—Surface-car transit in New York City is tied up by a strike of motormen and conductors, organized by the national union; the subway and elevated systems are little affected.

September 10.—Charles Evans, of Chicago, wins the national amateur golf championship at Haverford, Pa., defeating Robert Gardner, the 1915 champion.

September 11.—The steel cantilever bridge under construction over the St. Lawrence River near Quebec collapses for the second time as the central span (weighing 5100 tons) was being raised into position; 11 persons are killed.

September 19.—A bursting dam in the mountains of Bohemia (Austria), near the German frontier, inundates several villages and causes the death of more than 250 persons.

OBITUARY

August 20.—James Seligman, the veteran New York banker, 92.

August 21.—James Talcott, a prominent New York banker and philanthropist, 81.

August 24.—Charles George Herbermann, professor of Latin at the College of the City of New York and editor of the Catholic Encyclopædia, 76.

August 25.—Archbishop John Lancaster Spalding, of the Roman Catholic Church in Illinois, a member of the anthracite coal arbitration board of 1902, 76.

August 28.—Rev. William Hayes Ward, D. D., for many years editor of the *Independent*, 81 (see page 440). . . . Bishop Leigh Richmond

Brewer, of the Protestant Episcopal Diocese of Montana, 77. . . . Henri Joseph Harpignies, the French landscape painter, 97.

August 30.—Benjamin Day, inventor of a process for producing mechanical tints in photo-engraving, 78.

August 31.—John Peirce St. John, ex-Governor of Kansas and Prohibition candidate for President in 1884, 83.

September 1.—Dr. Albert Leffingwell, champion of the restriction of human and animal vivisection.

September 2.—Samuel W. Pennypacker, Governor of Pennsylvania from 1903 to 1907, 73.

September 4.—Richard C. Kerens, former ambassador to Austria-Hungary, 74. . . . Rev. Adam McClelland, D. D., of New York, a noted blind preacher and author, 83.

September 11.—Thomas Lemuel James, Postmaster-General in the Garfield cabinet, 85.

September 14.—Josiah Royce Alford, professor of natural religion and moral philosophy at Harvard, 60. . . . Don José Echegaray, the noted Spanish dramatist, 83.

September 15.—Dr. William Bayard Craig, former chancellor of Drake University (Iowa), 70.

September 16.—Horace White, the eminent journalist, formerly editor of the *New York Evening Post*, 82. . . . Gen. Basil Wilson Duke, of Louisville, a noted cavalry leader in the Confederate Army, 78.

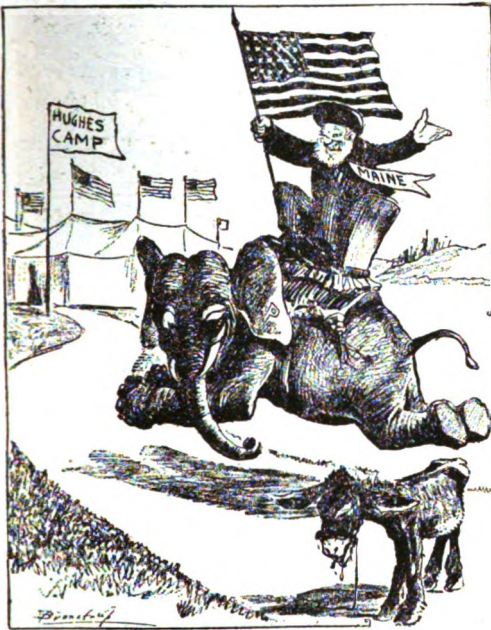
September 17.—Seth Low, a distinguished public-spirited citizen of New York, former Mayor, and former president of Columbia University, 66.

September 18.—Major-Gen. Albert L. Mills, U. S. A., Chief of the Bureau of Militia Affairs, 62.

September 19.—William James Calhoun, former Minister to China, 68.

A WORLD OF STRIFE

AS SEEN BY CARTOONISTS



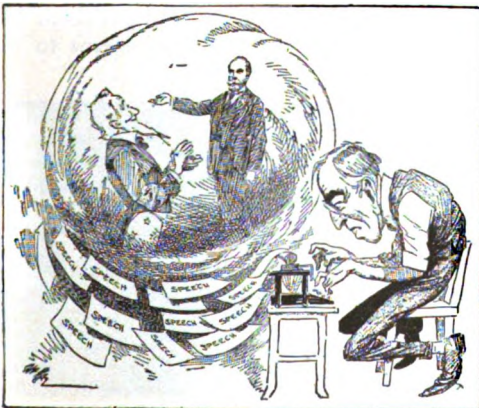
BACK TO THE OLD MOUNT
From the *Chronicle* (San Francisco)

THE victors declare that the election on September 11 shows that the voters in general are glad to return to the Republican elephant after a season spent in trying to ride the Democratic donkey; but so far as the returns themselves are concerned, each side can find grounds for hope of victory in No-



"VICTORY IN NOVEMBER!"
From the *Ledger* (Philadelphia)

vember—the Democrats in the fact that a "normally" Republican State did not roll up a phenomenal majority.



PREPARING TO HIT THE TRAIL
From the *Leader* (Cleveland)



THE ELOQUENT SISTERS TAKE THE STUMP
FOR WILSON

(News Item: President Wilson will not make speaking tour)

From the *News* (Dallas)



UNCLE SAM: I SUPPOSE I COULD RUN THE BLAME THINGS MYSELF IF I HAD TO
From the *Register* (Des Moines)

Four of the cartoons on this page relate to the unprecedented situation at Washington on September 1, when the country was threatened with a great railroad strike if Congress should fail to enact the Eight-Hour Law. They remind us that all the world's strife is not on the battlefield. In the lower right-hand corner we reproduce a Swiss cartoon that depicts the perplexity of Mars when he learns of two additional declarations of war in the European tangle.



TRYING TO "BUTT IN" ON THE ROW
From the *News-Tribune* (Duluth)



A BLOOD RELATION
From the *Evening Dispatch* (Columbus)

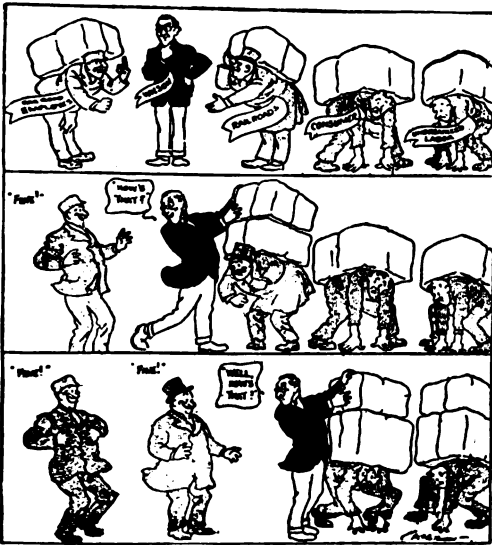


AN HONEST EFFORT
From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus)

There is no apparent reason why the determination of the Allies to monopolize the world's trade should be compared to the judgment of Paris, but *Punch* seems to like

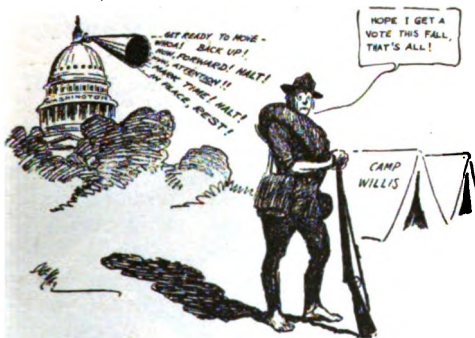


MARS: "I can hardly think it possible that mankind in the course of two years has learned so little about me that it is ready to make new declarations of war!"
From *Nebelspalter* (Zurich, Switzerland)



© 1916: By John T. McCutcheon

SHIFTING THE BURDENS, OR, HOW THE THREATENED STRIKE WILL BE SETTLED
From the *Tribune* (Chicago)



AWAITING ORDERS
From the *Leader* (Cleveland)

the conceit and it is quite probable that Germany can stand it.

The cartoonist of the *Montreal Star* sum-



UNCLE SAM, HAVING SOLD TO THE BELLIGERENTS EVERY POSSIBLE THING, IS GOING TO "NEGOTIATE" PEACE

From *A Careta* (Rio Janeiro)

Oct.—3



THE JUDGMENT OF PARIS

PARIS: "We've decided to keep the apple for ourselves."
GERMANIA: "Then what do I get?"
PARIS: "The pip!"

From *Punch* (London)

mons loyal Canada to subscribe to the second war-loan. The "philanthropy and five per cent." motive is not wholly absent from his call. Other cartoons from Britain's over-seas dominions are reproduced on the following pages. Australia, India, and South Africa are represented and serve to express in some degree the interest in the war that is taken by loyal British colonists in those countries.



DUTY WITH PROFIT: NOW THEN, ALL TOGETHER!

From the *Star* (Montreal)



IN HIS GRIP

BRUIN: "There's no escaping me this time."

(Russia has recovered so completely from her collapse of a year ago that her campaigns against the Turks in Asia Minor and the Austrians in Galicia seem almost irresistible)

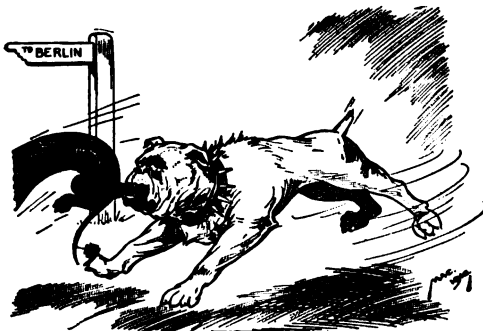
From *Hindi Punch* (Bombay, India)



THE RISING TIDE

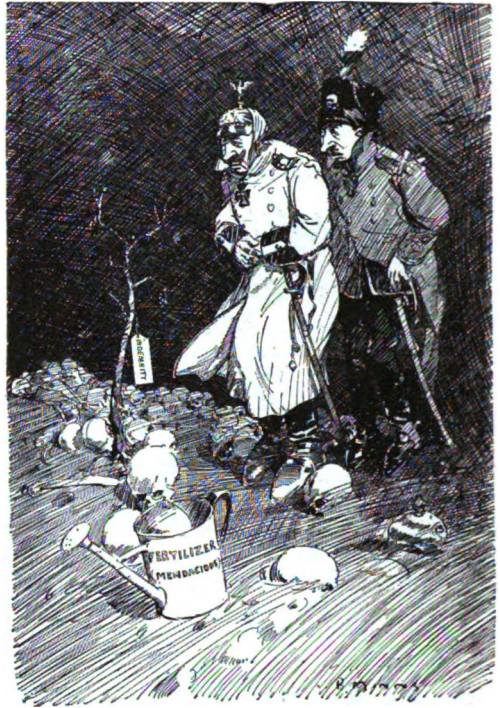
(Will the combined British, French, Russian, and Italian offensives overthrow the German and his Austro-Hungarian ally?)

(From *Le Rive* Paris)



BETTER THAN A "LOOS" GRIP THIS TIME
(Meaning that the British are holding the Germans better than they did at the Battle of Loos)

From the *Cape Times* (Cape Town, South Africa)



THE INDEMNITY TREE

THE UNDER GARDENER (Crown Prince Wilhelm): "I don't think it will bear any fruit, after all."

From the *Bulletin* (Sydney, Australia)



IN THE SOUP

GENERAL HAIG: "Yes, William, we prepared the soup — now you are in it."

("The British have made the soup, now they must sup it," said the Kaiser to his Prussian Guard. The Guards were subsequently cut to pieces in an attack)

From *Punch* (Melbourne, Australia)



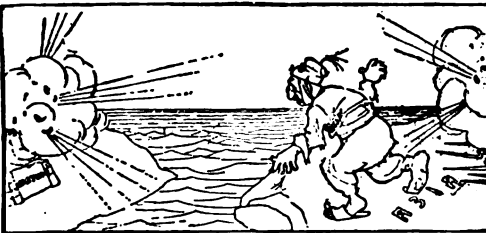
THE GERMAN: "Excuse me, madam, did I hear you call?"

(The well-known German publicist, Herr Maximilian Harden, writing in *Die Zukunft*, suggests: "After the recent exhibition of our enemy's strength, they might, without humiliation, make up accounts and consider peace.")

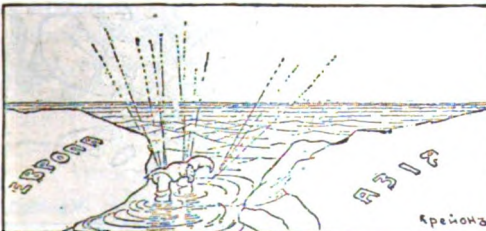
From the *Cape Times* (Cape Town, South Africa)



At first the Turk was driven from Europe to Asia.



Now he is being driven from Asia.



Between Europe and Asia he might finally be perfectly quiet!

A SAFE PLACE FOR THE TURK
From the *Listok* (Odessa, Russia)

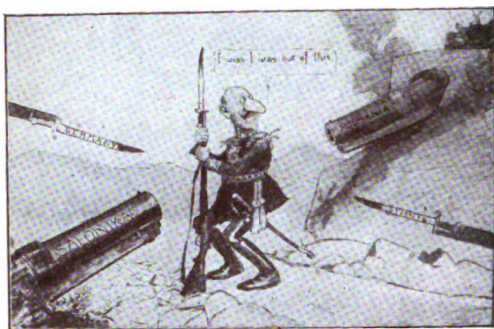


APPARENTLY THE LONG CHANCELLOR HAS BEEN
CHANCELLOR TOO LONG

(Referring to the criticism against the policies of von Bethmann-Hollweg, and alluding to the height of the German Chancellor. This German cartoon recalls one that was current during Lincoln's second campaign, declaring "We want Long Abe Lincoln a little longer")

From *Der Nebelspalter* (Zurich, Switzerland)

Russian views of Turkey's fate are interesting at this moment to the whole world. The cartoon from Odessa (on the left) pictures the Turk's utter desperation and the idea, now apparently fixed in the Russian mind, that no foothold is left to him anywhere, east or west.



THE FLIGHT OF THE BULGARIAN CZAR
From the *Weekly News* (Auckland, New Zealand)

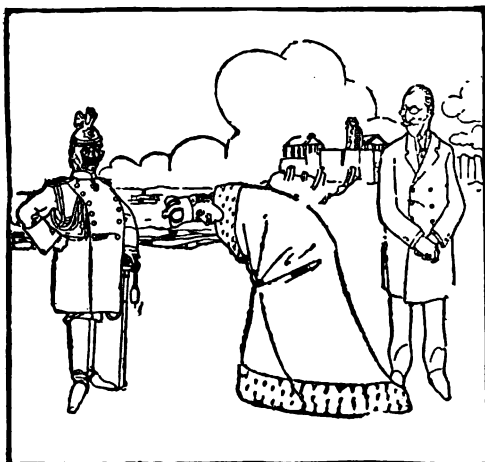


THE SLUMP IN CENTRAL EUROPE
FERDIE (of Bulgaria): "The All-Highest (German Emperor) seems a bit below par."
SULTAN: "Why did we ever leave our comfortable fence?"

From *Punch* (London)



THE NEUTRALITY OF GREECE
(Preferring neutrality to yielding to the entreaties of Ferdinand of Bulgaria, Greece now finds herself overrun by the warlike forces of the Central Powers)
From the *Listok* (Odessa, Russia)



THE IMPRUDENT KING OF GREECE
VENIZELOS: "Your majesty, do not bow so much. Your crown is likely to fall off your head."
From *Listok* (Odessa, Russia)



A DIFFICULT POSITION FOR GREECE TO MAINTAIN
© From *Le Rire* (Paris)



THE RAILROAD EIGHT-HOUR LAW

BY WILLIAM Z. RIPLEY

DR. RIPLEY, who is professor of political economy in Harvard University, has become one of the highest authorities in the United States upon all the problems of transportation and has recently published two very important volumes on American railroads, one dealing with rates and regulation, the other with finance and organization. We do not know of any writer better qualified than Dr. Ripley to state for our readers the significance of the new law fixing the eight-hour day for men operating railway trains in interstate commerce. The sudden action taken by Congress in its closing hours last month, under President Wilson's leadership, must rank as the foremost American topic of the season, and is likely to take first place as an issue in the pending political campaign. Professor Ripley occupies an independent standpoint, and his views deserve to be read with thoughtful attention and great respect.—THE EDITOR.

NO novelty whatever attaches to the demands of the railway trainmen in 1916 for a basic eight-hour day and punitive overtime. Nine years earlier the three senior Brotherhoods of Engineers, Firemen, and Conductors first joined hands in a concerted movement therefor, on the railroads west of Chicago. The change has come, not in the nature of the demands but only in the means adjusted to their attainment. Steadily, year by year, improved organization and resources have broadened the territorial scope of each proposal, from local or divisional committees on a single road as at first, to entire roads, to systems comprising several affiliated companies, to the grand territorial groups of Trunk Line, Southern, or Western roads, until at last the range of operations becomes co-extensive with the whole United States.

A slow, steady pressure has been kept up, with the inevitable outcome of a threatened nation-wide strike. A crisis has arisen, long anticipated by those in close touch with railroad affairs; one which, it was believed, would necessitate such drastic Federal legislation for dealing with labor disputes in a quasi-public service as is contained in President Wilson's Congressional program for the coming winter. The trainmen—400,000 of them—had the power to tie up every railroad from Fort Kent to San Diego; and the people of the United States were as clay in the hands of a potter, in so far as the protection

of their paramount interest in an uninterrupted railroad service was concerned. A condition of affairs supervened which ought never to be allowed to occur again.

To meet the novel situation thus presented, and to avert a country-wide strike with all its concomitants of industrial stoppage, waste, and warfare, the Congress of the United States, between a Friday and a Sunday early in September, enacted the so-called Eight-Hour Law—a most revolutionary bit of legislation. In text it is almost as brief as the Sherman Anti-Trust Act; and it promises to open as novel a chapter in law-making no less momentous in its consequences. Just what are its provisions? What does it, and what does it not provide?

IN EFFECT, A MINIMUM WAGE LAW

In the first place, although "eight hours shall, in contracts for labor and service, be deemed a day's work and the measure or standard of a day's work for the purpose of reckoning the compensation for services of all employees . . . actually engaged in any capacity in the operation of trains," this statute assuredly sets no limits to the length of the working day. It bears not the slightest resemblance to the Federal Hours of Service law, which positively fixes a maximum of sixteen hours as a trainman's daily stint. Every member of the Brotherhoods understands this perfectly. President Gar-

retson, of the Order of Railway Conductors, outlined the reason at the Senate Committee hearings:

The charge . . . that it was impossible to put in a true eight-hour day on a railway is correct. It cannot be done. The trainman cannot stop, because eight hours may find him in a semi-desert country, or find him fifty miles from his home; therefore he is compelled to go on and work; but he demands a higher rate of speed.

The so-called Eight-Hour Law, then, is a statute fixing wages, with only an incidental bearing upon hours, as will soon appear.

The new statute is in effect a minimum wage law for men engaged in a quasi-public employment. We have recently become familiar with such laws for women. Many States have copied the British, French, and Australian legislation, which, however, is applicable to both sexes alike. Such statutes for women only are now before the Supreme Court of the United States to determine their constitutionality.

TEN HOURS' PAY FOR EIGHT HOURS' WORK

But the new Federal Eight-Hour Law provides a minimum not for women but for men. It is not "the first of its kind in the history of the world," as has been asserted by its opponents. The British Parliament was compelled to enact such a law in 1912 for coal miners, in order to bring to a close a strike which had shut down factories, stopped railways and shipping, and thrown several million people out of employment. No miner in the British Isles may now be paid less than a sum fixed locally by a prescribed administrative machinery. But this new statute of ours not only fixes wages, it positively increases them by a substantial amount. For the law prescribes that, pending the report of a special commission instituted to observe the effect of the eight-hour schedule, that is to say, for a possible ten months—

the compensation of railway employees subject to this act for a standard eight-hour work day, shall not be reduced below the present standard day's wage, and for all necessary time in excess of eight hours, such employees shall be paid at a rate not less than the *pro rata* rate.

In effect the new law orders ten hours' pay—that being roughly the former standard day—for eight hours' work, with the remaining two hours at the same rate.

The new law fails to fix an overtime penalty; it is merely a law to determine wages, and hence is of doubtful constitutionality. The enactment of an overtime penalty

clause would change it into a statute regulating hours of labor. Such regulation has already been held constitutional even for men.

THE QUESTION OF SPEED

There are two possible ways in which the railroads may cope with the new conditions and avoid almost a flat increase of wages of twenty-five per cent. One is to speed up the trains. The other is to shorten the runs. By recourse to either expedient, inasmuch as the men are paid according to a dual standard of distance run or of time consumed, it is theoretically possible to condense a day's performance within the new limits. Some roads, like the Southern Pacific and many in the South, with long through hauls and little local business, already achieve an average speed sufficient to comprehend 100-mile trips within eight, instead of ten hours. But for many others the problem is a most difficult one. Thus a single-track line, if it cuts its trains in two, is confronted with the need of more sidings, and enlarged terminals. Congestion of the main line is a costly business. Nor can the divisions be arbitrarily shortened up. Large towns cannot be bodily shifted to new locations, convenient for operating standard runs of eight hours instead of ten. And, furthermore, to rearrange schedules involves not only more outlay for facilities; it cuts away the ground from under the prime economy in operation upon which the carriers have come to rely.

SLOW, HEAVY TRAINS FAR MORE PROFITABLE

Heavy train loads, necessarily slow, have been a prime resource in a pressing time of need. How efficacious, may be illustrated by two companies in the fiscal year of 1915. Largely by concentration of traffic, the New York Central carried 2,500,000,000 more tons of freight one mile than the year before, at an actual outlay for conducting transportation—mainly fuel and wages—of \$3,000,000 less. The Canadian Pacific record is likewise extraordinary. Its ton mileage increased 79 per cent.; while its transportation expense grew by only one-quarter. This was effected by slower movement of freight trains and much heavier car loading. Thus was a surplus for dividends of only \$90,000 transformed into one of \$15,444,000 within a twelvemonth. And such a phenomenal showing is typical of what has been accomplished all over the United States. It is due in part to the heavy investments in improved plant since 1909, now only just completed; to extraordinary prosperity; but es-

entially, also, to greatly improved operating technique. It is at this point, however, that one comes to such justification for the new legislation on behalf of the men as may be had—and it is indisputable that there is a grievance to which the railroads have not paid due attention.

COMPLAINTS OF THE MEN

The economy of heavy train loads means necessarily slower movement. It means more delays on sidings, more breakdowns, more irregular runs contingent upon obtaining a full rating for locomotives, more hanging about by the men waiting for a telephone call to report for duty, more nights away from home, or sleeping in the caboose instead of "hitting one's own hay." But the carriers, hard pressed for revenue, intent upon making both ends meet, have, perhaps, not paid sufficient attention to the attendant hardships and inconvenience to the men. To be sure, under the rigid seniority rules, a good time later on was bound to come to each, as his term of service lengthened; until he attained the comfort of short and speedy trips on regular hours for a generous day's compensation. But the rank and file of trainmen, as of humankind in general, lie nearer the bottom than the top of the pay-roll and the time sheet. And it is their discontent, coupled with the growing sense of power which one success after another has brought to the Brotherhoods since 1910, which has led up to the present extraordinary performance.

HALF THE DEMANDS ABANDONED

Unique as the present Eight-Hour Law is, it represents only one-half of the men's demands. The railroads in their discomfiture to the contrary notwithstanding, the outcome was a compromise. In this sense the President's intervention may after all in the long run have been an act of statesmanship. Superficially he prejudged the case, and made up his mind offhand that the eight-hour demand was warranted. But that is not the whole story. Nor is the rôle of the President in this affair by any means concluded. He may yet be needed to save the carriers from a still worse defeat, not directly but mediately at the hands of the Congress. The demands of the men were two-fold, involving two separate items; one of principle, one of penalty. They demanded a basic eight-hour day—not merely an empty declaration of principle, however, but ten hours' pay for eight hours' service, as we have seen, as carried on under existing conditions, some of

which can be modified, some not. This they achieved. But what they abandoned is of equal importance in their own eyes; and it is as sure as the rising of the sun that they will come back in due time and demand it of Congress. It is in this sense that the assertion holds good that this problem is only half worked out; and that the President in his program for next winter relative to administrative procedure in such cases must be upheld by the American public as well as by the railroads themselves to the bitter end.

PUNITIVE OVERTIME

What the men abandoned was the punitive half of their demand—time and a half for all overtime above a limit set at eight hours if they could get it, if not at the prevailing ten. Superficially this abatement of their proposal halved the cost of the change from an original estimate by the carriers of \$100,000,000 to something like one-half that sum. Actually the compromise was more than an even split. For, in the eyes of the law, the addition of a penalty, later on, by transforming the statute from a law fixing wages for men—of doubtful constitutionality—to one clearly regulating hours, might be necessary to save the day for it in the courts. Apparently it was immaterial to the men which half came first—a basic hours' plan or an overtime penalty—so closely do the two hang together. Either would have been acceptable. Note what Lee of the Railway Trainmen testified before the Senate Committee:

Had the President of the United States said, "I think your claim for time-and-a-half overtime is fair, but your eight-hour day is unfair," we might have considered it, because the 600 men here knew very well that so long as it does not cost the companies one penny more for working the ten, eleven, twelve, or fifteen hours than it costs them to work these men the first hour, there is really no incentive to stop them or so arrange their business that the eight-hour day will become effective.

The President happened to seize the dilemma by one horn. Apparently the railroads would have preferred the other—namely, time-and-a-half overtime for all excess above the prevailing ten-hour limit. Personally I should have done the same, leaving open for future consideration whether the penalty should begin to run at ten, nine, or eight hours. But it would have made little difference in the long run, perhaps, inasmuch as the two propositions are but opposite faces of one and the same shield. They

stand or fall together, and until satisfaction or settlement is had concerning the remaining half of the program, the American public may not rest quiet in its industrial bed. The point cannot be too strongly stated; for upon it hangs the insistency of the President's program for still further law-making, not as to the substance but as to the method of procedure, when the inevitable controversy arises once again.

It will be worth while to reveal the entire program of the Brotherhoods, while we are about it. President Lee of the Trainmen was again explicit:

Without that (time-and-a-half for overtime) we will probably be against exactly the same condition with the eight-hour or 12½-mile speed basis, that we are to-day against under the 10-mile hour speed basis.

And President Garretson of the Conductors—"arid, loquacious, lean, and tearful" as his opponents call him, but picturesque and highly effective as he undoubtedly is all the same—frankly avowed at the same Senatorial Hearings that, following their unflinching practice so far as concerned punitive overtime provisions, the Brotherhoods were "perfectly willing to put them in the scrap-heap for a year." The question for the American people to decide is as to the manner in which this reclamation from the scrap-heap shall receive its due consideration when the time comes round. Shall punitive overtime, or anything else for that matter, be hastily enacted into law under duress and threat of industrial paralysis, or shall our legislative house be put in order to receive this approaching guest with such dignity and consideration as may befit the circumstances of the case? Let justice, indeed, be done; but let it be done decently and in order.

OTHER PROPOSITIONS TO BE DEALT WITH

The President, at the height of the crisis, in person urged upon the Congress in joint session assembled, "not in haste or merely as a means of meeting the present emergency, but as permanent and necessary additions to the law of the land," six separate items of legislation. These were, specifically: an enlargement of the Interstate Commerce Commission appropriate to its greatly enhanced responsibilities; a basic eight-hour day for railway trainmen; a commission to observe and report upon the effect of the eight-hour plan; an explicit recommendation that the Interstate Commerce Commission permit an increase of rates sufficient to meet the extra cost of the change; amendment of the present

mediation and conciliation act to prevent a repetition of the recent hold-up; and authority vested in the President to assume control of train operation and to draft men into service for military purposes. Of these six propositions, two, and two only, were immediately enacted into law as already described. Only those which were demanded by the trainmen were embodied in the statute. But the others must come in due time. Without them, grave injustice to the carriers and imminent danger to the public interest will assuredly obtain.

MEDIATION AND ARBITRATION

The fifth proposition, to amend the present Newlands Act providing for Federal mediation and arbitration of railway disputes, is the only one which will be bitterly opposed by the Unions. This law of 1913—itsself the outcome, by amendment of the so-called Erdman Act, of a threatened trainmen's strike—permits, mediation by a permanent commission failing, the constitution of an arbitration board of three or six persons, duly balanced as to representation of each side. But it has failed utterly to meet the needs of the case. Its impartial members were uninitiated into the technique of rail-roading, entirely inexperienced, and disqualified for renewed service so soon as their record was once established. Piecemeal adjustment—an unsatisfactory compromise—rather than a fundamental determination of the merits of the dispute resulted. By asking for about twice what they expected to get, the men usually on the split-even got what they wanted.

BROTHERHOODS OPPOSED TO COMPULSORY ARBITRATION

There are two possibilities for amendment of the Federal procedure. One is compulsory arbitration by a permanent, or at least an experienced board, as is done in Australasia. Whatever its advantages, the men will have none of it. It may be set down as a political impossibility. What the President proposes is compulsory investigation—a modification of the De Meaux Canadian Industrial Disputes Investigation Act of 1907. This, in turn, put into effect the recommendation of the United States Anthracite Coal Strike Commission of 1902, based upon a Massachusetts experience of 1877 with an engineers' strike on the Boston & Maine. It provides for "compulsory inquiry" only and an appeal thereon to the reason and sense of right of all concerned." Its objec-

tionable feature, from the trainmen's point of view, is that it forbids a strike pending the period of investigation.

The Brotherhoods and organized labor in general will leave no stone unturned to defeat the adoption of this principle; but it must come, nevertheless. I, personally, find much to justify the demand of the trainmen for an abatement of their present time sacrifice under recent operating conditions. But it is impossible to conceive in an orderly community of wise legislation enacted as this Eight-Hour Law was passed, under threat of an instant and total paralysis of the community. This Congressional performance, in fact, flatly reversed the Canadian procedure. It enacted first and investigated thereafter. The proper course to pursue would be to investigate thoroughly and impartially first; to ascertain the merits of the dispute and to report thereupon, in the meantime carefully safeguarding the *status quo*; and then leave it to the force of public opinion to bring about a settlement, or, if need be, to legislate.

THE PUBLIC SHOULD NOT BE BURDENED WITH COSTS OF INEFFICIENCY

One further detail remains to be described, and it is embodied in two of the President's proposals. Wages, as perhaps the largest single element in cost of operation, must be duly co-ordinated with the rates charged for service. Therein lies the significance of the enlargement of the Interstate Commerce Commission; and the explicit recommendation by Congress that the added burden due to wage increases should be compensated by an allowance of increased freight and passenger charges. No other body than the Interstate Commerce Commission is competent to open up the cost and rate schedules and to bring them properly to an accommodation. But, in the meantime, a careful examination must be made to establish that every known expedient has been utilized to the full to readjust the operating conditions to the new eight-hour plan. No burden for inefficiency should be shifted to the community's shoulders, however justifiable it may be to improve the lot of the employees by means of an increased wage. Stockholders, through their chosen managements, should suffer in decreased dividends until a maximum of economy, of efficiency, and of honesty in direction prevails. But, those once assured, it becomes the duty of the community to share in all the rest.

The program of the Congress this coming

winter had long since promised to be heavy laden with matters concerning railroads. A special joint committee on remedial legislation had already been constituted at the President's suggestion; and the carriers are already engaged in elaborate preparations to make known their needs. These are certainly urgent and immediate; and some of them will assuredly be dealt with by law. There will be a battle-royal over the assumption by the Federal Government, to the practical exclusion of the States, of all control over matters of rate-making. But the Supreme Court has pointed the way. Congress must follow. And along with the assumption of rate regulation, the Federal Government will, within a brief time, also deal authoritatively with the issue of securities. Past abuses have rendered this inevitable and fitting. Whether the carriers will secure that relief from the repressive features of the Anti-Trust Law which labor has already attained, is more problematical. They should have it in some degree, especially to the end that they may act coöperatively along pooling lines. And now, on top of this pre-arranged program, the recent wage controversy renders it imperative that Congress should also comprehensively deal with matters of labor.

CONGRESS MUST ACT

With rates, operation, finance, and wages taken from private control and regulated administratively by the Federal Government, what will remain? It appears as if a problem of vast and fundamental significance were soon to be completely exposed to view. Private interest seems unable to yield up more. Whether the outcome will necessarily be public ownership, if not operation, of our railroads, will depend upon the order of statesmanship soon to be displayed. Most of our legislation thus far has been necessarily negative and repressive. It cannot always remain so. Constructive relief and encouragement is as vital to industrial progress as the prevention or excision of abuses. In all the changes which seem bound to come, it must never be forgotten that an effective transportation system is the very life-blood of our communal well-being. And effectiveness can be had only after great and long-continued capital investment. Unless this is duly protected and encouraged, all other expedients under private ownership will fail to bring relief; and the transition to public proprietorship will become inevitable. We are fast approaching a parting of the ways.

NORWAY ADOPTS COMPULSORY ARBITRATION

AT present the United States is the leading country in the world in regard to industrial strife. But this place was conceded to America by Norway only last summer, for Norway was as late as June, 1916, suffering chronically from strikes and lockouts. Capital and labor were always at each other's throat in the Scandinavian country, and the situation had reached such an acute stage early last summer that the government was compelled to take extraordinary action. It introduced a bill providing for compulsory arbitration of industrial disputes.

Australia and New Zealand long ago adopted such a measure. The Norwegian Government made in recent years several unsuccessful attempts to pass such a law. In 1914 the cabinet of Knudsen made an effort to pass a similar bill, but failed and resigned. A labor convention held in 1914 threatened a general strike throughout the country in case such a measure should be adopted. The Conservatives were also hostile to the bill. Only the Liberals advocated compulsory arbitration, but they were not strong enough to legislate upon it. The year 1915 was one of the most critical years in Norwegian industry. The number of strikes and their proportions assumed unprecedented size. The Swedish, German, French, and other foreign capital sunk in Norway were, for obvious reasons, reluctant to satisfy the demands of the workmen for better conditions and higher prices.

A crisis was reached at the beginning of the present year. The existing agreement between the miners and their employers had expired. The miners refused to renew it. A lockout was declared by the operators of the mines against their employees. The Norwegian labor organizations threatened a sympathetic strike in all the branches of labor. To meet this threat the operators of the metallurgical industries declared a lockout, which affected 20,000 workmen. Labor was getting ready to answer the lockouts by a general strike. Many organizations struck independently out of sympathy with their locked-out comrades. Meanwhile the government started a campaign for a compulsory

arbitration law. It entered into successful negotiations with the Conservatives, who agreed to support such a law. Only the Socialists opposed the measure. A general strike was declared, which was answered the first day by 70,000 workmen; 120,000 more were to join the strike in the following two weeks upon the expiration of their notices which they were bound by contracts to give to their employers. The whole country was slowly being paralyzed. The Norwegian press declared the strike to be nothing less than an industrial revolution.

On June 9 Parliament passed the bill providing for the settlement of industrial disputes by an impartial commission appointed by the government. Each side is to be represented at the commission by an equal number of delegates. The bill was signed by the King on the same day, and became a law. Violations of the law are punishable by fines of from 5000 to 25,000 kronen, corporations as well as individuals being responsible. Immediately upon the adoption of the measure the lockouts were called off. But labor would not acquiesce so readily in the newly passed law. It refused to rescind the issued strike orders and to send the old strikers back to work. The reason given was that the Norwegian Labor Congress, scheduled to meet on June 13, would take up the matter and decide the future course of action of the labor class in regard to the compulsory arbitration measure.

The Norwegian Government was forced to wait four days for the Congress to meet and decide on its attitude toward the new law. The country was in a state bordering on panic. The representatives of the labor organizations, finally assembled on June 13, were bitter against the government. At the beginning it looked as if labor really intended to oppose the law, and an industrial revolution seemed not at all improbable. However, the more moderate elements prevailed at the end. They simply made it an issue of Labor *vs.* the Government. The international situation was a great factor in convincing the workmen of the necessity of giving in. By a vote of 197 against 45

the Congress decided to sustain the law. The strike was called off. Compulsory arbitration of industrial disputes thus became a permanent institution in Norwegian national

life. Industrial strife is no more, and it is predicted that the industrial development of Norway will from this time on gain powerful impetus.

THE NEW TAXES

HOW UNCLE SAM WILL MEET THE BILLS FOR NATIONAL DEFENSE

BY CHARLES F. SPEARE

IN the revision of the revenue plan which Congress enacted as one of its last acts, taxes repealed approximate \$20,000,000; but taxes initiated and increased will reach a figure not far from \$200,000,000.

The bothersome penny tax on telegrams and long-distance telephone calls, which one always forgot, and, having lost one's train in the paying, cursed the government for its policy, has been lifted under the new revenue act, while \$10 per \$1000 of income above \$4000 has been added to the normal income tax, and the penalty for dying with a large estate has been made almost prohibitive. Following the example of Great Britain and our neighbor, Canada, we are to levy on the makers of war munitions an impost of 12½ per cent. of net profits and out of this prepare ourselves against the invasion of potential enemies. Corporations are to pay a license tax for doing business, individuals for providing pleasures for the masses, while manufacturers of tobacco, cigars, and cigarettes contribute to the Government revenue on the quantitative basis of production, and brewers and distillers in ratio to the strength of their liquors.

Government, with the enforcement and protecting of it, is becoming expensive in the United States as everywhere else. Every Congress has this problem on its hands during most of its life, and has to make the final compromises and concessions which the hurry to adjourn an extended session usually compels. Taxation bills, therefore, are not likely to be very polished, and are quite brutal in form. Most of them eventually have to be interpreted by the Supreme Court. There are a lot of people, who expect to die within a year, who have not yet been able to discover a way out of avoiding for their heirs the payment of the so-called "estate tax" to the Government. There was a precedent for the inheritance tax which forty-two States had enacted, and which in 1915 realized for those commonwealths the

sum of \$28,217,735. If these are added to the estimate for the federal "estate tax" of \$54,000,000 (House) to \$65,000,000 (Senate) the total would still be 35 per cent. below the "death duties" in Great Britain before the war.

FROM INDIRECT TO EXCISE REVENUE

The taxation scheme of the American Government has gone through an evolution in the past century that could scarcely have been foreseen by the early incumbents of the Department of the Treasury. The report accompanying the revenue bill plots out the changes, and establishes the necessity of collecting the revenues from those most able to pay them. The first stage was that of government administration through the indirect taxation plan, or on customs. In 1800 this produced \$9,080,000 and in 1825 a little over \$20,000,000, while internal revenue receipts in these two periods were nominal.

This was a satisfactory system until the era of the Civil War when, in 1865 alone, the War Department disbursed over \$1,000,000,000. Then its failure was apparent. Salmon P. Chase, Secretary of the Treasury, remarked in 1863 that "the chief reliance for any substantial increase, and even for the prevention of any possible decrease, must be on internal duties." Consequently, the second phase in fiscal policy came into being in the form of an internal revenue tax. From almost nothing a year this jumped to \$209,000,000 in 1865 and to over \$309,000,000 in 1866, an average for the two years 80 per cent. in excess of the tax from customs.

That we were steering a still different course became apparent in 1909 when a special excise tax on corporations was legalized. This was incorporated in the tariff act of that year, followed by an income tax in 1913; an emergency act in 1914, mainly of a stamp-tax character; and now comes the bill which still further differentiates between

taxes that impose their weight on the general public and are known as "consumption taxes" and those which take their toll from excessive profits, from the "unearned increment," and from those luxuries or diversions which we do not require to sustain life but which—if we must have them to be happy—we must pay for beyond their worth.

There is in taxation one of the greatest of political arguments. A tax is like the sting of a bee; one never is unconscious of it. However equitable, it always offends. The individual from whom it may be lifted through the operation of free trade or a tariff revision downward, recognizes no immediate change in his living costs. But on him to whom the levy has been transferred, though he be a millionaire, the burden is intolerable. When the operation of the recent tariff law began to be effective and customs revenues dropped from \$333,683,000 in 1910 to less than \$210,000,000 in the last calendar year, the war playing its part in restricting imports, this gap had to be closed in and the direct tax was substituted for the indirect, or consumption, tax which was impracticable.

TAXING INCOMES AND INHERITANCES

Whether out of this emergency there will develop a permanent change in American ideas of taxation, the next few years will have to determine—though there is every reason to expect that the theory and practise of other nations will give much momentum to the direct tax policy. It is most significant to find the leaders of both the House and Senate continually referring to the methods by which Great Britain has been paying her running costs for years, and emphasizing the fact that she collected 58 per cent. of her revenue, prior to 1914, from incomes and inheritances. Read this suggestive statement:

It is probable that no country in the world derives as much revenue per capita from its people from consumption taxes as does the United States. It is therefore deemed proper that in meeting the extraordinary expenses for the Army and Navy our revenue system should be more evenly and equitably balanced, and a larger portion of our necessary revenues collected from the incomes and inheritances of those deriving the most benefit and protection from the Government.

A SMALL NATIONAL DEBT

On the other hand, the Congress has shown its independence of European ideas by refusing to commit the economic crime of paying by borrowing, and of saddling future generations with a load of debt for

armies and navies that they may not be willing to sustain or need to. With the best credit in the world and a national debt that would not pay the way of the armies abroad for a month, our preference is to meet expenses out of hand and not to increase our fixed charges. Interest on the Government debt in 1875 was over \$2 per capita while now it is only 23 cents. And, although there has been spent on the army, the navy, and pensions in the past sixteen years the colossal sum of \$6,350,000,000, the service of the nation's debt has dropped from \$40,000,000 per annum to less than \$23,000,000 per annum. If this cost of wars of the past and of wars feared had been capitalized at 3 per cent. the present per capita interest charge would be just about as high as at its crest forty years ago. There is some tradition, therefore, to support the present administration in its *modus operandi* of taxation.

SIZE OF THE THREATENED DEFICIT

Why, it may be asked, is it necessary for the Government to increase its revenues at this time? The answer is that there appeared to be "a gap between the vest and the pants"—a deficit once being euphemistically treated in this form in Congress—of \$469,000,000. In the House report the disbursements in sight were figured at \$1,126,243,000, and in the report by the Senate at \$1,068,000,000. The estimated revenue from customs, internal revenues and taxes on incomes, and miscellaneous taxes was about \$750,000,000. The extra costs to consider, and provide means for, were those of the Mexican expedition, placed at from \$125,000,000 to \$130,000,000, an additional amount of \$167,000,000 appropriated for the Navy, \$166,000,000 additional for the Army, \$20,000,000 for fortifications, \$41,000,000 for deficiency appropriations (of which about \$35,000,000 is due to the Mexican situation and the increased requirements of the Army and Navy), and \$20,000,000 for a nitrate plant which is part of the preparedness program.

POSSIBILITY OF A BOND ISSUE

Regular appropriations for the year were normal. Should the necessity exist for maintaining troops on the border after December 31, 1916, a further appropriation of \$86,000,000 to meet this expense is considered likely. The entire cost of the Mexican expedition was thought by many to be a legitimate excuse for a bond issue; and it is quite

possible that eventually this cost may be funded in a Government debt emission.

YIELD OF THE INCOME TAX

In the first year of the operation of the income tax on individual incomes it yielded \$28,253,000. In 1915 it realized \$41,046,000. In these two periods the corporation tax produced respectively \$43,127,000 and \$39,155,000. The 1915 payment covered half of the first year of the war when business was prostrated in this country and heavy personal and corporation losses the rule. The tax which was due last June, on the other hand, applied to receipts and profits of one of the greatest industrial and agricultural years in the history of the United States; so that the income tax gathered in June alone was nearly \$96,000,000, or nearly two and a half times all other taxes paid that month.

The advance in the normal tax from \$1 to \$2 per \$1000 income over \$3000 for unmarried and \$4000 for married persons, and up to \$20,000, and the heavy surtax imposed on incomes above \$100,000 and 13 per cent. on incomes over \$2,000,000, is expected to produce next year between \$225,000,000 and \$230,000,000. This looks now like a conservative estimate, as the total profit of the country will be much in excess of 1915. There are modifications of the new law, however, that may change the net result. In its first form it contained the curious mandate that one must include one's profits outside of ordinary profession or business in the return, and pay a tax on them but one could not deduct one's losses. This inconsistency has been eliminated and a proper balance between business risks struck.

WHAT THE ESTATE TAX MAY PRODUCE

The revenue from the estate tax is conjectural. For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1917, the estimate is only \$20,000,000. But when it is in full operation it is believed it will realize above \$50,000,000 and possibly \$65,000,000. This will depend, naturally, upon the mortality among the very rich. It is a good deal like calculating an undertaker's receipts a year in advance. This tax is also graduated. On an estate not exceeding \$50,000 the "death duty" would be 1 per cent. From above \$50,000 and up to \$150,000, 2 per cent. From above \$150,000 to \$250,000, 3 per cent., and so to 10 per cent. for an estate appraised above \$5,000,000. It will be seen that the tax is much more severe than that on incomes. For instance, a \$50,000 estate ought to realize an

income of from \$2,250 to \$2,500. This income falls below the normal income tax figure. A \$60,000 estate would have to pay an inheritance tax of \$1,200, whereas an individual married and living from the income of such estate would not be taxable unless he put out his funds at reckless rates of interest.

TAXING THE MUNITIONS MAKERS

There has been less objection to the tax on munition profits than to any other feature of the new revenue bill. This is considered just, a proper expedient, and it is temporary. The tax expires a year after the European war ends. Whether this means after peace terms are signed is not clear. The termination, according to the text of the law, "shall be evidenced by the proclamation of the President of the United States declaring such war to have ended." The income estimated from the tax is \$71,000,000 for the year to June 30, 1917. The specific applications of the measure are against manufacturers of gunpowder or other explosives except blasting powder and dynamite, of cartridges, projectiles, shells, or torpedoes, including shrapnel, and of firearms, including small arms, cannon, machine guns, rifles, and bayonets.

In the first classification the tax is 5 per cent. of gross receipts up to \$1,000,000 and 8 per cent. of gross receipts in excess of that figure. With firearms and associated manufactures, it is 2 per cent. on \$250,000 of gross receipts, 3 per cent. to \$250,000, 4 per cent. to \$500,000, and 5 per cent. in excess of \$1,000,000. There is also a tax on copper ore, metallic copper, or copper alloys, of 1 per cent. to \$1,000,000 of receipts from sale, 2 per cent. to \$10,000,000, and 3 per cent. in excess of that amount. The bill provides that should the net profit from the sale or disposition of the articles included in this section of the act be less than 10 per cent., no tax will be levied.

For the year ended June 30, 1916, the exports of explosives from this country were valued at \$467,081,000. Deliveries of firearms, which had been very unsatisfactory until a month or so ago, were small and of a value of only \$18,065,000. Over 700,000,000 pounds of copper had been shipped, representing a money value of \$159,491,000. To have realized its best results, the munitions profit tax should have been imposed a year earlier. A similar tax is now in operation in Canada, Denmark, Sweden, France, Germany, Great Britain, and Italy.

The development of Government revenues and disbursements since 1800 is shown in the tables below, giving the changes by 25-year periods, except where there were intervening years of national crisis, as in 1865:

GOVERNMENT RECEIPTS

	<i>Customs Receipts</i>	<i>Internal Revenues</i>
1800	\$9,080,000	\$909,000
1825	20,098,000	25,711
1850	39,668,000
1865	84,928,000	209,464,000
1866	179,046,000	309,226,000
1875	157,046,000	110,000,000
1900	232,164,000	295,327,000
1915	209,786,000	415,669,000

GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES

	<i>Civil</i>	<i>War</i>	<i>Navy</i>
1800	\$1,337,000	\$2,560,000	\$3,448,000
1825	2,748,000	3,659,000	3,049,000
1850	16,043,000	9,678,000	7,904,000
1865	42,739,000	1,030,690,000	122,617,000
1875	63,859,000	41,120,000	21,497,000
1900	98,542,000	134,774,000	55,930,000
1915	200,533,000	172,973,000	141,835,000

<i>Pensions</i>	<i>Debt Charge</i>
\$64,130	\$3,402,000
1,308,000	4,366,000
1,866,000	2,782,000
16,347,000	77,395,000
29,456,000	103,093,000
140,877,000	40,160,000
164,387,000	22,913,000

Some idea of the way Government expenses and Government receipts have been expanding may be obtained by a study of the following figures:

Expenditures

1900	\$487,713,792
1910	659,705,391
1915	731,527,572
1917	*1,126,243,000

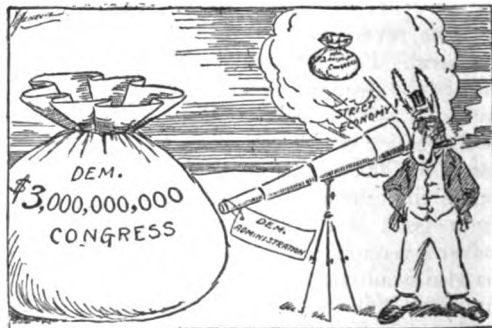
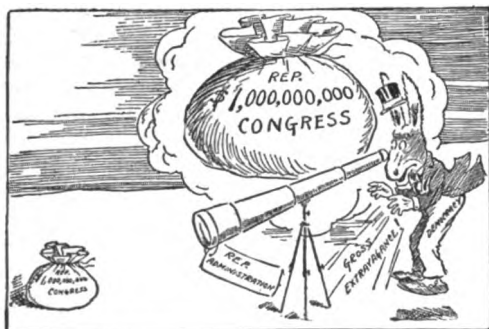
Receipts

\$567,240,852
675,511,715
695,663,190
†967,000,000

*Estimated and exclusive of post-office.
†\$130,000,000 to be financed by bonds and \$29,243,000 taken from the general fund.

There are a certain number of items in the miscellaneous revenue account which, in the aggregate, supply a considerable sum. Sales of public lands in 1915 realized \$2,167,000. Coinage profits produced \$4,427,000, consular fees \$1,456,000, tax on national bank circulation about \$4,000,000, land and patent fees another \$4,000,000, the immigrant fund \$1,225,000, and Indian labor over \$3,000,000, the latter a return of 7 per cent. on the money paid out for the Indians. There was the new item of Panama canal tolls of \$3,822,000, which would be the interest at 2½ per cent., the average at which Panama Canal bonds have been sold, on an investment of over one hundred and fifty millions.

What is known as the Civil Establishment—covering the legislative, executive, the administration of the various departments, such as War, Navy, State, Treasury, Justice, Interior, Agriculture, Labor, and Commerce—cost last year over \$207,000,000. Of the \$172,973,000 appropriated for the Army and Navy, nearly \$47,000,000 was for rivers and harbors, commonly known as "pork," and of the Navy cost of \$141,835,000, about \$40,000,000 went for new ships and collateral requirements.



IT'S ALL IN THE POINT OF VIEW
From the *Tribune* (South Bend)

GERMANY IN RETREAT— RUMANIA

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS

I. RUMANIA

FOR the first time in a year the political events of a month have outweighed the military. The declaration of war upon Germany by Italy, followed the next day by the sudden emergence from neutrality of Rumania and new declarations of war that made the little Latin state a full-fledged ally of the enemies of Germany, changed the whole face of the European situation, raised new problems, answered old questions, opened other horizons.

And above all else the course of Rumania demonstrated the moral ascendancy which has at last been acquired by the group of nations which are united against the Central Powers. There comes a time in all great wars when the issue becomes unmistakable. It may be that a tremendous and decisive battle like Leipzig accomplishes the result, it may be that a relatively indecisive battle like Gettysburg, supplemented by Vicksburg, advertises to the world, neutral and belligerent alike, that the outcome is no longer in doubt, however long the distance to the final decision may be.

This is precisely what the action of Italy and of Rumania did. Everyone knew that Rumania would not join the Central Powers. Everyone knew that her political interests and her sentimental bonds were with the Latin partners of Russia and Britain. But what no-one could know was whether Rumania would ever enlist in the war and they were satisfied that Rumanian enlistment would only come when the coolest, keenest, and most observing of statesmen, those actually in charge of Rumanian affairs, were convinced that the outcome of the war was no longer hidden and that the hour had arrived when those who hoped to profit by the defeat of the Central Powers must associate themselves with the victors.

More than all else Rumania was a weathervane. German publicists, quite as frankly as the Allied, conceded that the Rumanian

decision would be based upon realities; it would be, in a sense, a decision to make Rumania an accessory after the fact. Therefore the Rumanian decision came as a terrible and still oppressing blow to Germany. It was a blow that could neither be explained away by brave words nor grim threats. It was the verdict of a neutral nation, a neutral nation facing grave dangers and positive perils when she surrendered her neutrality. In Bucharest the case of Germany and of the enemies of Germany was submitted to the final test and Rumania decided that Germany was beaten.

Go back a year and recall that the same decision was made in Sofia by the Bulgarians on the evidence then available—the decision to quit the neutral position. But a year ago Sofia, acting on the evidence then available, voted for the Central Powers. So far have the events of the recent months differed from those of last summer. Verdun, Galicia, Gorizia, the ever-rising tide of Allied progress along the Somme, these have supplied the basis for Rumanian decision. Four months have passed since Germany lost the offensive, four months in which every day has brought new evidences of German loss, Austrian weakness, Allied appreciation in strength and determination.

In viewing this great world war it is well, from time to time, to turn away from the study of the battlefield incident, the advance or recoil of the trench lines, and recognize in the larger perspective what is taking place. Many years later the history-books will dwell more on incidents like the Rumanian decision than on the events of many months of the war. This Rumanian decision marks one of the great moments of the struggle. It marks the lowest point in German prestige since the conflict began. Morally, Germany lost at Bucharest one of the decisive battles of the war and all that has been happening in recent months and has been disclosed in fragmentary comment was summarized at Bucharest.

II. GREATER RUMANIA

What Rumania had to gain by the defeat of the Central Powers has always been patent. Across her frontiers in Transylvania, Bukowina, and the Banat are 3,500,000 people of Rumanian race and tongue, living under conditions recalling the plight of Italians subject to Austrian rule in the Valley of the Po before the liberation of Italy. The dream, the hope, the purpose of all Rumanian patriots has ever been to contribute to the reintegration of the Rumanian race. To the hour of national and racial deliverance Rumanians have looked forward for all the years since Rumania gained her freedom.

But such a unification could be achieved only after the downfall of Austria-Hungary. Over forty years there has been no promise of such a downfall and Rumania has marched with the Central Powers, as did her Latin sister, Italy. With a Hohenzollern sovereign, an aristocracy permeated by Teutonic influence, Rumania has been an ally of the German emperors. The Russian course in taking Rumanian Bessarabia after Plevna gave German diplomatists a handle in Bucharest, as French invasion of Tunis gave them a handle with Italy.

Yet it was always inevitable in the case of Rumania, as of Italy, that the desire for national unity would some day override all arbitrary and ephemeral political alignments. Transylvania for the Rumanians, Trieste and the Trentino for the Italians, were reasons why these nations could not forever remain in the orbit of the Central Powers and must become their enemies whenever the moment for the realization of national hopes arrived.

Had Allied diplomacy been a little less stupid, Rumania might have enlisted when the Russian troops were at the Carpathians in the spring of 1915, at the precise moment when Italy made her decision. But that moment was lost and the subsequent defeats of Russia abolished all chance for many months.

Yet when Russia did return to the offensive, when a second Austrian collapse followed, when Bulgarian conquests in the Balkans raised a new peril to Rumania, nothing could be more certain than that Rumania would make the decision. Not to be another Belgium or a second Serbia, this was the chief solicitude of Rumanian statesmen, but not less determined were Rumanians that they should not be another Greece and see the golden moment pass forever and pre-

serve a sterile neutrality to the hour when the lands Rumanians desired to possess were apportioned among the participants in the war or made the price of a separate peace with Hungary.

A good many foolish words have been spoken in criticism of the Rumanian course. Yet the fundamental fact is that millions of men and women, who are Rumanian by race and tongue and desire to be Rumanian by nationality, have been over long years held captives in Austrian and Hungarian provinces and subjected to the most stupid and intolerable attacks upon their language and their racial individuality. The desire of men of a race to be united is one of the most deep-seated of human emotions. The desire of the Italians of the Po Valley to be joined to Sardinia, to exchange Hapsburg for Savoy sovereignty, supplies one of the fine pictures of Nineteenth Century history. The real driving power in Rumania was the same.

If Rumania realizes her dream she will be a nation of nearly 90,000 square miles, holding 13,000,000 people, not less than 10,000,000 of whom will be Rumanian by tongue. Among the remainder there will be not one but several races and tongues and in substantially all the territory Rumania will acquire Rumanians will hold a clear majority. In the East as in the Valley of the Po the Hapsburg Empire drew arbitrary lines separating men of the same race and sought to maintain the lines by crushing the spirit of her captives. Her failure in Italy was not more striking than her failure in the East, and as she failed with the Rumanians she failed with the Serbs.

III. THE POLITICAL CONSEQUENCES—HUNGARY

It was in Budapest that the Rumanian decision awakened its first echoes. On the moment of the declaration of war Rumanian troops flowed over the mountains into Hungarian Transylvania. As it happens the corner of Transylvania nearest Rumania holds the majority of the Magyar and Saxon inhabitants of the whole province. With the advances of these Rumanian armies the people of the border cities and towns took flight. Hermannstadt, Kronstadt, all the Valley of the Alt was abandoned and there flowed to the north and west precisely the same dismal processions that preceded the arrival of the Germans in Northern France.

Before the war was many days old—this new phase of the war—Budapest was receiv-



Photograph by Press Illustrating Co.

THE IRON GATE AT ORSOVA, WHERE THE FRONTIERS OF HUNGARY, RUMANIA, AND SERBIA JOIN
(The taking of Orsova, last month, by the Rumanians, followed shortly after Rumania's declaration of war)

ing its thousands of refugees as Paris had received them exactly two years earlier. Instantly there was an outburst in the Hungarian Parliament. Hitherto the war had

been kept away from Hungary. If the Russians had approached the crests of the Carpathians in the winter of 1914-15, if the Cossacks had raided the western slopes on



RUMANIAN TROOPS

(Sturdy marchers, keen marksmen, and hardy soldiers: Infantry in field kit passing a saluting point)
Oct.—4

several occasions, the appeal of Hungary to Berlin had been promptly heeded. In the year that followed the Battle of the Dunajec the war had moved far away from Hungary, it had gone beyond the Russian boundary and the menace of Serbia had been abolished.

But now a new and far more deadly peril was in plain sight. Not merely was Hungary threatened by invasion, she was threatened with the loss of her fairest province, for the conquest of Transylvania would mean its permanent separation from the Magyar monarchy. The conquest of Galicia had left Hungary cold, for Galicia was a Slav land belonging to Austria and not to Hungary; and the defeat at Gorizia was too remote to stir Budapest. But Transylvania was an immediate and insistent peril.

In the debates in the Hungarian Parliament Count Tisza held his own with great difficulty. He was forced to confess that while the Central Powers had expected the eventual hostility of Rumania, they had been caught off their guard at the moment. He was compelled to admit that still further retirements would be necessary, because of the indefensibility of eastern Transylvania, now that Rumania had gained control of the passes. To the insistent demand of the Hungarian legislators that the Hungarian troops be recalled from other fronts to defend their fatherland he could offer no response, for the control of the Hungarian troops was vested in Berlin, not Budapest or Vienna.

In this agitation, too, there was revealed the plain possibility that Hungary might resume her freedom of action, her political freedom. Yet there was little to warrant any belief, heard in London, that the Magyars would make a separate peace. On the contrary, they were more likely now to engage with a whole heart in the struggle, because no separate peace would restore them the lost portions of Transylvania or even leave them in possession of what they still had. Rumania had made her bargain in advance, like Italy, and her new allies had guaranteed to her eventual possession of all of the lands that she coveted.

But Hungarian pressure upon Germany did raise a new question. It was inconceivable that Hungary, or for that matter Turkey and Bulgaria, would permanently consent to see their territories invaded, their provinces held by the enemy, because Germany was unable both to hold her Russian, French, and Belgian conquests and defend her Hungarian ally. Austria, too, with

Lemberg and Trieste in peril, would hardly continue to lend her armies to hold the long front in Poland and Volhynia, in Macedonia and Bulgaria.

Patently a new phase and a new crisis were at hand and the Hungarian disturbance, still continuing as I write, sheds interesting light upon future possibilities. It is an evidence of the difficulties Germany must increasingly face as the pressure upon her allies and upon her own lines continues everywhere steady and everywhere growing.

IV. THE CONFERENCE OF BERLIN

Bulgarian and Turkish demands were quite as promptly heard and it became necessary for Germany to summon the representatives of her allies to Berlin to discuss the future in one of the most momentous conferences of the war. Thither came Ferdinand of Bulgaria and Enver Pasha of Turkey, while Austria had her own representatives, official or unofficial, and Hungary made her will heard with unmistakable clarity.

For Bulgaria the Rumanian decision was of utmost importance. It instantly opened a wide front for attack and it placed Bulgaria between two millstones, the Rumanian in the north, weighted by Russian army corps, and the Salonica army in the south, daily becoming more active and threatening. Of her German ally Bulgaria was now in a position to make an immediate demand. She was able to do it because there was still left open to her the chance to change sides.

When Bulgaria enlisted she had expected a swift conquest of Macedonia and of Serbia, the expulsion of the Allies from the Balkans, and a prompt return to peace after she had occupied the lands she claimed and coveted. She had acquired the lands, but the decision of the Allies to stay in Salonica—a decision due solely to the vision and firmness of Briand in the face of more British blundering and vacillation—had compelled Bulgaria to keep her army in the field, and promised to compel her to fight new campaigns on both fronts—to fight the Russians and the Rumanians as well as the British, French, Italian, and Serb forces at Salonica.

The sole condition of Bulgarian fidelity to her present alignment was the guarantee of effective aid from Berlin. Her enemies could offer her both the protection and a substantial territorial gain at the expense of Turkey about Adrianople, and conceivably at the expense of Greece about Kavala, and Serbia in Macedonia. It was not as a mere

suppliant that Ferdinand went to Berlin.

Should Bulgaria change sides, then the famous bridge connecting Turkey with the Central Powers—Berlin with Byzantium—would be abolished. Turkey would be isolated and condemned to an immediate or lingering death, and the whole German dream of an expansion into the Near East would come to a sudden and dismal termination. But to defend Bulgaria from Rumanian and Russian attack made instant demand upon Germany for new armies. It made a demand for a new Balkan army at the moment that Hungary was demanding another German army for Transylvania. It coincided with the new demands that were being voiced by the generals who were fighting desperately along the Somme to hold up the most serious attack that had been seen in the West since the deadlock came in November, 1914. It coincided with demands for reinforcements to check Italian progress at the Isonzo and Russian along the Dniester.

Bulgarian and Turkish demands, too, could not be ignored, however Magyar requests were postponed. If the Orient Railroad were ever cut, if Sarraill's army came north to Nish, if the Russians and Rumanians got south to Sofia or Philippopolis, then there was an end of the life-line binding the two weak to the two strong Central Powers. Sooner or later this would be followed by the surrender of the Turk, by Russian occupation of the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus, by the opening of the Straits, which would permit arms and munitions to flow freely into Russia, and thus accelerate the equipment of the millions of Russians behind the front only awaiting guns to join the millions already in the field.

We shall see that Germany heeded this demand instantly. We shall see that with skill and promptness she sent Mackensen to the vital point and won new successes in the Dobrudja, the extent of which is still undisclosed. But it is important now to note the rapid increase in her liabilities, due to Rumania's decision and Bulgaria's demands.

V. GREECE

The effect of the Rumanian decision in Athens was startling. It was accompanied by the arrival of an Allied fleet at the Piræus, it was preceded by the inroad of a Bulgar host in the Kavala-Drama district. In a moment the whole structure of Constantine collapsed. He had sought the ap-

proval of his people because he had "kept them out of war." But now war had broken in upon them. The hated Bulgar had killed Greek troops, as, under German direction, he later kidnapped a whole army corps. Kavala and Drama were lost to the Bulgar; Italian troops in Salonica and about Valona forecast the loss of Epirus, the extinction of the dream of expansion into Asia Minor.

Behind the veil of the censor many exciting things took place. A German submarine was sunk in Greek waters and this supplied the Allies with a reason or a pretext for taking drastic action. German agents in Athens were hunted down, the German minister fled north; actually Greece passed under the complete domination of the Allies, and the Greek army was torn by a revolt, provoked by the acquiescence of the King in Bulgar invasion and occupation of Hellenic territory.

Presently the Greek cabinet fell and frantic efforts to find a premier other than Venizelos temporarily failed. Constantine had gambled on German victory; he had staked the future of his nation, the safety of his kingdom, his own crown, upon this turn, and this turn had not come. He had permitted the Bulgars to invade Macedonia and destroy Serbia without intervention, because he feared the Kaiser and trusted that sovereign's pledge that Greece should not be disturbed. He had destroyed constitutional government, dissolved the Chamber, forced Venizelos out of power without hesitation, because he felt assured that German victory was inevitable. But the Rumanian decision had proven that in Bucharest German defeat was believed to be assured, while the Bulgar invasion had demonstrated the emptiness of the Kaiser's pledge.

It would be difficult to imagine anything more pitiful than the Greek situation at the moment these lines are written. A year ago the Allies offered her Smyrna and the coast of Asia Minor, together with the islands of the Egean, Cyprus, and northern Epirus, to enter the war on their side. To-day they offer nothing. But unless Greece enters, she will lose not alone her hopes for the future, but not impossibly her northern provinces, for the Allies coolly decline to protect her Kavala district and the Germans and Bulgars have disarmed her troops in that region and have decided to transport them to Germany.

About the only hope that remains for Greece is that Venizelos will come back to power. He is a greater man than the states-

manship of any of the nations in the war has yet produced. Beside him Sir Edward Grey is a pigmy. He is the real maker of Greece, and under his direction the nation has already doubled its area and population. He has the confidence and respect of the Allied statesmen. They cannot refuse to him those concessions that Greece will never gain from them while Constantine rules.

But Greek intervention has no longer any real value for the Allies. The Greek army is torn by dissension and it would take a long time to get it back into shape again. Many of its officers have followed the King against the nation, and they would have to be removed. The troops are in bad shape, as a result of the strain that their long stay with the colors has placed upon Greek finance. A year ago the army was in good shape and the needs of the Allies were great. Then Greece could have named her own price. Now there is no offer for her enlistment. But there is stern and prompt punishment of her further leaning toward Berlin. Greece has become a side-issue—a pathetic side-issue. Her King has kept her out of war, and her ruin is only one degree less than that of Serbia. And unlike Serbia she has no assurance of friends in the future.

VI. HINDENBURG

The first evidence of the appreciation in Berlin of the change in the face of affairs was the fall of the Kaiser's favorite Falkenhayn, Chief of the Great General Staff. His going had but a single meaning. He had paid for his failure at Verdun as his predecessor Moltke had paid for the yet greater failure of the Marne campaign. Not less than 500,000 of the best of German manhood had been killed, wounded, or captured before the Lorraine fortress; and the defeat there had now become absolute.

To replace Falkenhayn the Kaiser summoned Hindenburg from the East. The choice was enormously popular; it aroused new confidence and new hope in Germany. But there were not a few military observers who pointed out that Hindenburg was a legend rather than a fact; that his early successes at Tannenberg and the Masurian Lakes had not been followed by equally great triumphs, and that his campaigns for Warsaw had been relative failures, exceedingly expensive in lives. The judgment of the world was that, despite his Verdun failure, Falkenhayn was the greater general, the greater soldier, that his campaign in the

East a year ago, planned by him and executed by Mackensen; his rescue of the German military establishment after the early defeats, were shining triumphs; and that, apart from Joffre, Falkenhayn's equal had not appeared on any general staff in the war.

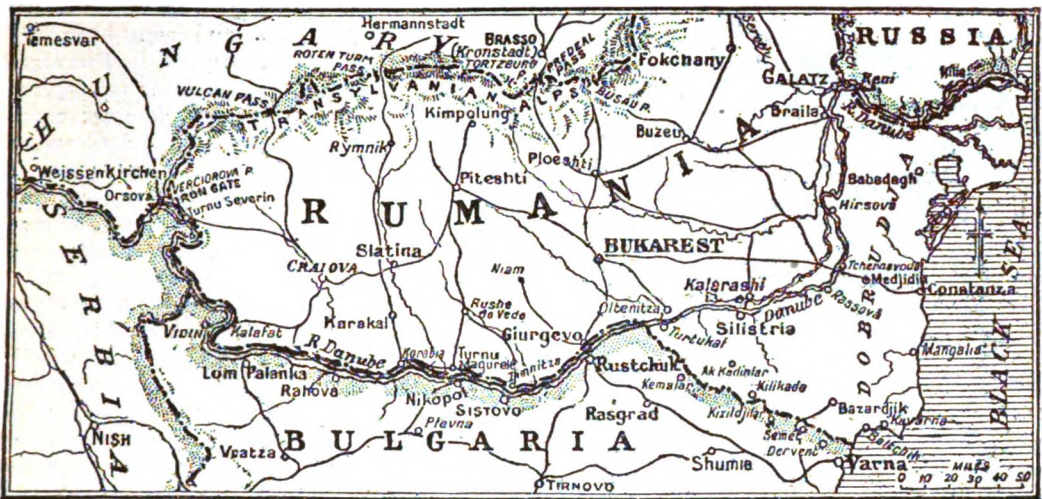
But the German people trusted Hindenburg; he had become a legend and an idol. He had saved them in the moment of direct peril; he had kept watch and ward over the open eastern frontier. Never did a people more insistently demand to be permitted to choose a military commander, and never was their will more completely obeyed. Nor can one mistake the fact that whatever the ultimate military effect of the change of commanders, the moral effect in Germany was instant and unmistakable.

But what in the grave crisis that now faced him would Hindenburg do? The question remains for the most part unanswered. Yet one thing Germany did with great promptness and success. Recognizing the peril in the Balkans, she placed Mackensen in command, and he, gathering up an army with incredible rapidity, attacked the Rumanians between the Black Sea and the Danube on the Dobrudja front, took Tutracan and Silistria, pushed on toward the Bucharest-Constanza railroad and abolished the immediate danger of a Russo-Rumanian attack from this quarter.

So great was the immediate success—and as I write the press reports a message of the Kaiser claiming a decisive victory—that the rumor began to obtain credence that Rumania had struck too soon and before Russian armies had arrived. Nor was it less plain that the Allied critics believed that Rumania had made a grave mistake in sending her main masses over the boundary into Transylvania before Bulgaria had been disposed of.

Mackensen's thrust had not merely stilled Bulgar doubts and aroused the joy of Sofia by reclaiming the Silistrian districts taken from Bulgaria in the Second Balkan War. It had equally acted to draw away from Transylvania the Rumanian army of invasion. By placing Bucharest in peril it had issued an imperative recall to the Rumanian armies beyond the Transylvanian Alps. And in doing this it had also quieted the protests of the Hungarian patriots, who perceived at once that Germany was acting at top speed and with more than usual efficiency.

It is not possible to say now how far



RUMANIA'S POSITION IN THE WAR

the recent Mackensen triumph has been a decisive victory, permanently abolishing all peril from the north. It seems hardly likely that Mackensen could get the numbers for such a blow, even if, as seems likely, he drew upon the Turkish troops before Constantinople. But even if the relief proves to be but temporary, it remains a shining example of the fashion in which German high command rose to one of the gravest perils in its history. As I read this article in proof the Russians and Rumanians are reported to occupy new positions to the south of the Bucharest-Constantza railroad, and covering this bridge, which is of great military importance, because if it is destroyed Rumania will be cut off from her only Black Sea port.

Meantime, far down in the south about Salonica there were unmistakable signs of new activity. Russian and Italian troops arrived to join the French, British, and Serb forces. There was a slow but steady pushing out toward Monastir in the west, up the Vardar Valley in the centre, across the Struma in the east. Under this pressure the Bulgars recoiled, suggesting that the armies here had been weakened to aid the Mackensen effort in the north. As I write, the despatches assert that the Bulgars are evacuating and the Russians, French, and Serbs approaching Monastir, having heavily defeated the Bulgars about Florina.

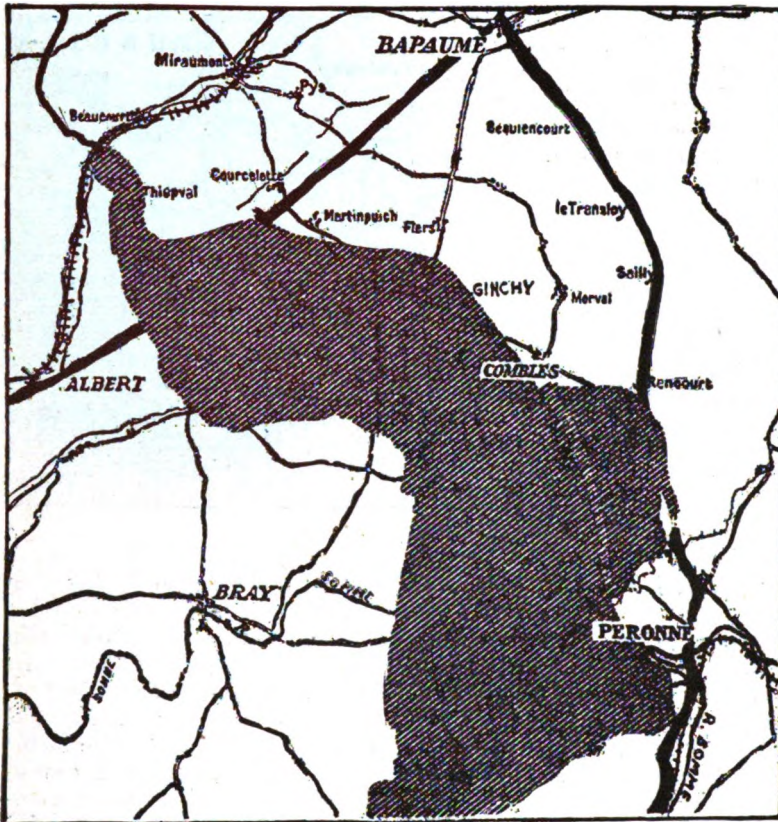
It remains true that the task of Sarraill's army is colossal. The districts through which they have to advance are mountainous, the roads few, the obstacles indescribably difficult, and winter is soon to come to the Balkans. If Sarraill has 750,000 men, as is

asserted, he could still be held by less than half that number of troops well provided with heavy ammunition. The single problem is whether the Germans and their allies can find men to cover all the new fronts or whether they must weaken one front to save another. If this latter prove the case in the Balkans, then we shall soon see a considerable advance by the Sarraill army and a corresponding advance of the Russo-Rumanian forces when the Germans have to turn their attention to Sarraill.

The Balkan situation is obscure. I caution my readers against too great expectations of Allied victory here in a brief time. Such a victory is possible, but it is equally possible that Germany, holding the Balkan field to be of prime importance, will make sacrifices either in France or Russia, and in no long time appear in this Balkan field with an army which will suffice to hold up all Allied progress, defend the railroad from Berlin to Constantinople, retain Serbia, and conceivably invade Rumania. It is fair to say, however, that the Balkans have become the most interesting phase of the war again; and Germany is facing here the patent peril of the rupture of her communication with two allies, with Bulgaria and Turkey.

VII. ALSO A CRISIS IN THE WEST

Turning now to the western field, it is necessary to note that in this portion of the battle-front the Anglo-French armies, fighting along the Somme, have acquired a moral and military ascendancy not before possessed by them since the Battle of the Marne. The recent days have seen a remarkable resump-



THE WEDGE BETWEEN PÉRONNE AND BAPAUME

(The shaded portion of the map shows the Allies' gain since the beginning of the Somme offensive)

tion of operations. Twice the French, under Foch, have made swift advances, capturing towns, trenches, thousands of prisoners. On September 15 the British executed the most successful operation in their portion of the war, stepped forward for almost two miles in places, cleared the last ridges of highland before them, and flowed over the crests and on toward Bapaume.

At no time in the trench war have such gains been made after the initial period of an offensive. To-day the French have cut the Arras-Péronne road, have almost encircled Péronne, and, with the British, have pocketed the little town of Comblès, which is the last considerable point of support in the German third line. For the first time, too, reports begin to describe something that suggests a piercing of the German lines. Foch, at the moment of his last thrust, saw some of his troops actual maneuvering in the open.

Unmistakably German defense is weakening in the West. Not less than 60,000 prisoners, hundreds of cannon—many of them heavy—vast numbers of machine-guns, and

nearly forty villages and towns have been captured. Practically all of the permanent defenses erected by the Germans in the two years of trench war have been taken; the new lines, erected since the Somme drive began, seem to resist the terrible bombardments less well, and the increasing extent of French and British gains suggest that these new works will not prove comparably difficult obstacles to Allied advance.

It is the judgment of most competent military observers, a judgment which I accept unqualifiedly, that the Germans must at no distant date shorten their lines in the West. Personally I believe that this will be done the mo-

ment some success in the East or the Balkans serves to cover recession in the West, in the eyes of the German public. It may be that this retirement will be due chiefly to the demand for troops in other fields, that Germany will decide that her Balkan and Polish conquests are of more permanent value than her French and Belgian conquests. This may explain the obvious weakening of her defense in the West.

When this time for shortening the western lines comes there is a great question as to whether the retirement will be general or local. It is plain that the Allied advance of recent days has imperilled the whole of the Noyon salient, and that if the French and British can get east a few miles further the Germans will have to draw out of all the big "elbow" south of Péronne. But such a retirement, on the present evidence, can be restricted to a line drawn from Arras, west of Cambrai and St. Quentin, to the Oise south-west of La Fère, and thence east to the present front before Laon.

This is the retreat that is widely expect-

ed, and we have been told that on this line Germany long ago erected permanent works. Such a retreat might surrender upwards of a thousand square miles of French territory, but it would not yield any considerable town or any portion of the mineral and industrial regions of Northern France. It would amount to a simple shortening of the line over a wide front.

But such a retirement would not release many thousand men for use elsewhere. If Germany is actually short of men, as many observers believe, then she will have to make a far more considerable sacrifice in the West and go back to the Franco-Belgian frontier, or even stand behind the Meuse from Verdun north to Givet and thence to Antwerp, covering Brussels. More than half of this line would be behind the Meuse, which is a considerable military obstacle. From a quarter to a half a million men might thus be released. But the retreat would involve a grave confession of weakness.

Nor should it be forgotten that a retreat of this sort would involve great perils and might end in disaster, for the chances of a successful attack by the French and British would be great and one well-informed critic has written to me to say that he believes that a disaster and the loss of 100,000 prisoners would be well-nigh inevitable. Both the considerable retreat and the disaster may be set down as remote possibilities. But it is plain that some retreat is now almost inevitable, and cannot long be delayed unless Germany has prepared a new blow in the West which will distract Allied attention, just as the Allied attack at the Somme called German energies away from Verdun.

Actually, the German front in the West stands in the most dangerous posture it has been in since the trench war began. The facility with which the Allies have gained in recent weeks has surprised all observers and holds out the promise of some striking developments before long. An advance of two miles a week is something new in trench war and totally unexpected, so long after the defender has been aware of the purpose of his foe and the direction in which the attack is coming.

It is worth noting, too, that the recent attack of the British disclosed a progress in training and efficiency which is promising

in the extreme for those who sympathize with the Allies. It is not too much to say that the last big British attack is the best single performance of the British army, and goes a long way to bear out assertions made by correspondents who have recently visited the English front that Sir Douglas Haig's army is becoming a great modern army.

VIII. A FOUR-YEARS' WAR

There have been few developments in Galicia and none in Volhynia. Russian attacks upon Halisz seem temporarily halted, although there have been frequent rumors that the town has been taken and Petrograd has permitted such reports to be sent out. In the Carpathians, Russian local successes have helped to make the junction between Russian and Rumanian troops in the corner where Transylvania, Rumania, and Bukovina meet more imminent. But nothing of real value has happened here in the last month.

As I close this article, the Italians report new attacks and new progress toward Trieste and east of Gorizia. The reports point to a resumption of Italian effort here. This should serve to prevent the diversion of Austrian troops to the Balkans or to Transylvania. It is a good evidence of the fashion in which the foes of Germany are synchronizing their operations in widely separated fields and exerting an even and steady pressure on all fronts.

We have, then, seen the end of the summer campaign. It was on June 4 that Russia struck her first blow in Volhynia. Since that time there has been a steady rise in Allied prospects; there have been great victories in Galicia; material advantages scored in Picardy and north of Trieste; there has been a decline in German stock which cannot be mistaken, and an ever-widening conviction that the end of the war will be reached on German soil. But I desire to say here, as I have said elsewhere, that I do not believe that such a victory can be won before the summer of 1918; and I think the degree to which Germany is exhausted has been grossly exaggerated in recent weeks. Almost two years lay between Gettysburg and Appomattox, and it seems unlikely that a short-distance will separate Verdun from the final German surrender.



TRANSPORTING RAILS FOR THE NEW ROAD



LOGS QUICKLY BECOME CROSS TIES, AND THE RAILS ARE LAID



A PORTABLE COOK STOVE PROVIDING MEALS FOR THE SOLDIERS EMPLOYED IN CONSTRUCTING THE LINE
 CONSTRUCTING TEMPORARY RAILROADS TO SERVE NEWLY WON DISTRICTS WITH AMMUNITION AND OTHER SUPPLIES—OFFICIAL FRENCH PHOTOGRAPHS



Photograph from Central News Service

BUILDING DUG-OUTS AFTER TAKING UP A NEW POSITION



Photograph from Central News Service

A SCENE JUST BEHIND THE FIGHTING LINE

OFFICIAL PHOTOGRAPHS OF THE BRITISH ADVANCE ON THE WESTERN FRONT



WALLACH-RUMANIAN MINE-WORKERS IN TRANSYLVANIA

(The state iron-mines in South Transylvania employ many of these Wallach-Rumanians, supplying them with schools and baths. Most of the words spoken by these people are derived from the Latin and have a similarity to modern Italian in pronunciation. It is said that the Wallachians cannot be fully understood by the Rumanians of Bucharest)

RUMANIA'S TRANSYLVANIAN NEIGHBORS

BY LOVINA STEWARD SMITH

THE country known as Transylvania has an area of over 20,000 square miles, approximating a circle in form and fitting into the elbow of Rumania on the east and south. The population (about 3,500,000) is made up of Rumanians, Hungarians, Szeklers, and Saxons.

In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries Transylvania maintained its independence of Austria, largely by the aid of the Turks, but Austrian suzerainty was acknowledged in 1699 and in 1765 Transylvania was made a grand duchy. During the nineteenth century it sought and won separation from Hungary, but that condition was only temporary. In 1867-68 full incorporation with Hungary was accomplished and Transylvania, in spite of its large non-Magyar population, has ever since remained a Hungarian province.

Transylvania, sunk in the crest of the Carpathians, contains great hunting forests, which make it a pleasure resort for the no-

bility. Twenty or more bathing places where curative springs have been known for hundreds of years fill into secluded spots among pine-forests; then rolling foot-hills for pasturage and narrow valleys well cultivated, dotted with pretty villages, make up a scenic section noted for its beauty as a summer resort of Hungary. The highest mountain ridges act as frontier barricade, for not far from Brassó (Kronstadt) we meet perpendicular cliffs on Mt. Bucees, where tourists climb for a night's retreat. At Cloister Skit these heights reach to nearly 5000 feet. The northeast fronts present heavily timbered mountainsides, the lumber-camps of Transylvania; stretching still further north are "The Tatra," snow-clad peaks. So this ridge of mountains circles to make a natural frontier for Hungary. A few passes enter Transylvania; the most important on the east is Gyimes, which leads out with its branch railroad to the main line, which circles Transylvania. Many of these connecting lines have



THE SHEPHERD WALLACHS

been made in the past five years. Three passes in the south complete these openings; the one connecting Budapest, via Brassó, with Bucharest is most important.

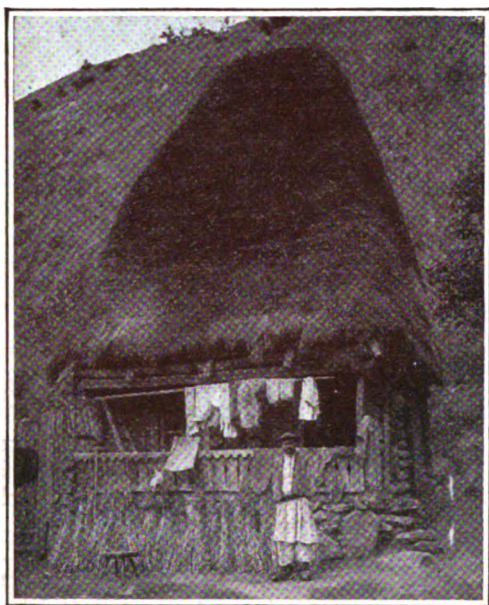
The fastnesses of these mountains are mostly peopled by Wallach-Rumanians, who always pick out ravines, borders, gorges, and mountain streams as their haunts. So we find six thousand of a shepherd class and half as many as mine-workers, for the iron mines of the south have always employed alone the Wallach peasants. In Transylvania those having Rumanian blood number half the population, while the other half consists of the Maygars, the ruling element, the educated Saxon, the Bulgar, Sickely, Csango, Armenian, and Jew.

The Saxons are mentioned first, because they, as a people of the 12th century, immigrating from the Rhine district, have given advanced culture to the larger southern cities — Brassó

(Kronstadt), Nagyszeben (Hermannstadt), Kolozsvár (Klausenburg) and Segesvár. When the Saxons entered this land on invitation of the Magyar King Geza, their fortresses were built on seven hills. The church-tower held gun holes, the church itself was store-house and refuge place, a high wall enclosed it, and this land received the name of Siebenbürgen (Seven Hills), and it is now called by this German name, just as often as Transylvania (Latin), or Erdely (Hungarian). Nagy Szeben, an interesting



MAP SHOWING TRANSYLVANIA'S RELATION TO NEIGHBORING COUNTRIES



THE MOTZ PEOPLE—MOUNTAIN DWELLERS
(The pointed, thatched roofs of their houses sometimes serve as snow-slides)

city, claims 36,000 population: 16,000 are Saxons, 7000 Magyars, 7000 Rumanians, and the balance a mixed people. A better class of Rumanians are found here than in any other part of Transylvania; they have a large church with bishop-house, also schools with industrial departments.

The Saxons wherever found are firm adherents of the Lutheran faith, and it is well to mention the Bruckenthal Palace, turned over to the Saxons for educational purposes.

This palace, besides its valuable library and museum, has twenty rooms filled with paintings—a Memling, Van Eyck, Titian, Van Dyck, Franz Hals, and others. During the first part of the war all the museums and art galleries in Hungary removed their valuables to safe quarters.

Keep in mind that the Magyars who came into Hungary as Seven Tribes in 896 claim this hat-crown-shape land surrounded by the ragged brim Austrian provinces. They are an agricultural people and settled with their fine horses and cattle on level plains; only one tribe, the Szeklers, and supposedly near relatives, the Csangos, pitched their tents in the rolling valleys of Transylvania, where they have ever remained as permanent settlers.

East of Brassó are seven villages, and west three, wholly given over to the Csangos. These people are a peasant class, the workers

in field and factory, and their numbers run into thousands when adding their kinsmen across the line in Bukowina.

The Szeklers are found in five counties. A clever, industrious people, their intellectual center is Maros-Vásárhely, Middle Transylvania. This city numbers 25,000 Szeklers, 2000 Wallachs, 2000 Saxons, and 800 mixed population. The Hungarian state has lately erected a beautiful "Art and Culture Palace," which contains a library, lecture halls, and a picture gallery.

Transylvania is cut by many large rivers. One, the Maros, circles and winds through many counties—an ugly stream, ever overflowing its banks and carving out a new bed. The state's railroad sends out its lines netting the entire district, and the mineral industry is the main output. This metal trade in Hungary has doubled in the past twenty years, and the greater portion centers in Transylvania. Coal is the most important mineral product. At the little town of Petrozsény, so near the Rumanian border, we find electric lights and telephone in hotels of this mining town, where the coal beds are extensive. The railroad ends near here, but coming in from the north on this short branch-line one passes through seven tunnels, a wonderful scenic trip. Iron comes as second mineral industry, with salt as third. In Transylvania are found three salt-mine districts of great importance. Lying on the eastern border, they extend over into Rumania. Some are electric lighted and oftentimes undermined with water.



SAXONS COMING FROM CHURCH IN BRASSÓ
(KRONSTADT)

(This city ranks second only to Budapest as to beauty of location: it is circled by mountains. A double city-wall was destroyed by the Turks in 1421)

THE ARMY AND THE MOTOR TRUCK



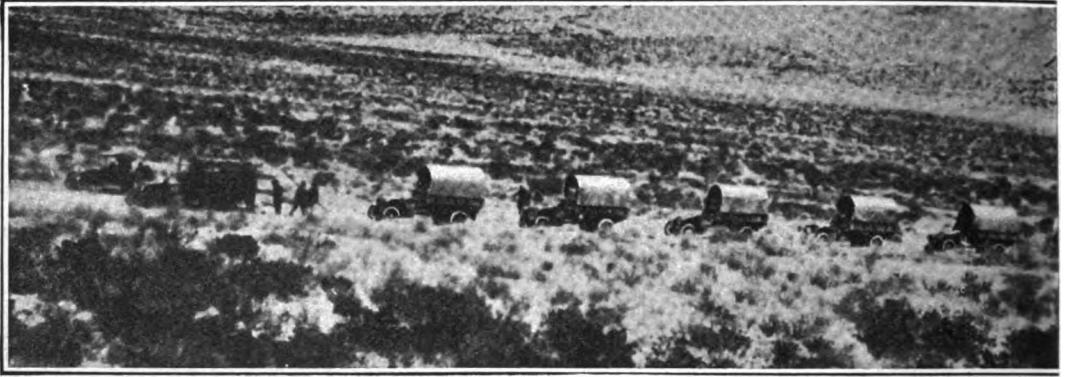
A MILITARY expert with a genius for alliteration has said that modern military operations are based upon *brains, boots, and bellies*. Brains first and foremost, as in all other endeavors, lie in the sound planning, preparedness, and strat-

egy as demonstrated in the well-known story of the "upper right-hand drawer" of the elder Von Moltke of Franco-Prussian war fame. Brains in the present European War have been and will be needed to a greater extent under the different conditions of forty-four years since. Boots, which constitute the dynamic force of military strength, are measured in the number of men which the combatants put in the field at critical junctures, since no amount of brains in fighting battles can be won without the human equation. The third important element which Napoleon tells us is, when the last word has been said, undoubtedly foremost—the commissariat must not fail, otherwise both brains and boots fail. The three are interdependent. One cannot exist without the due measure of importance of the other.

Motor trucks have and will play a part in the successes and failures of the combatants in the "crime of the century," such as very few outside of the theater of war can fully appreciate. The German army, from the writer's most trustworthy sources of information, has put into the field approximately 80,000, the French army approximately 100,000, the Belgian army 6000 and the English army 50,000 to 60,000 motor vehicles of all kinds. These motor vehicles (24,000 American trucks were in the service of the Allies up to June 1, 1916) are being used for every possible purpose conceivable wherever a wheeled vehicle of some kind is needed in military operations. Without these vast fleets of motorized equipment, the history of the European War up to this time would be markedly different.

THE MOTOR TRUCK IN THE GREAT WAR

Motor trucks saved Verdun as they did Paris. Verdun had no rail transportation. The one single-track, narrow-gauge railroad failed to meet the emergency and was abandoned. General Joffre considered it hopeless to attempt to hold Verdun. General Herr believed by reconstructing the main highway leading to Verdun and using enormous fleets of motor trucks, motor transports would provide adequate munitions, leaving the railroad to bring up provisions for the



TRAIN OF ARMY TRUCKS CROSSING ONE OF THE

troops. This was done, and every shell used by the French in defending Verdun was hauled by motors. This was the most crucial test motor transport had ever undergone. It established beyond question the motor truck as the indispensable transport arm of modern warfare, for never in any single battle had the task imposed been severer. More munition was expended at Verdun than in any other battle of the Great War.

Motor transport has entirely revolutionized military operations. A military expert, Capt. A. H. Trapmann, writing in the London *Daily Telegraph*, tersely says: "It is the motor lorry (truck) which has made it possible to supply 800,000 men and more on a single line of battle with perhaps but one line of railway working freely in the rear and carry to within two or three marches of the battlefield."

As more than two-thirds of the extensive utilization of motor vehicles in the present

European War lies in transport service, mechanical transport is by far the most important of the already demonstrated advantages, which are: (1) Superior speed; (2) ability to travel any length of time without rest; (3) large load-carrying capacity in relation to length of roadway occupied; (4) lesser vulnerability to bullets and even artillery fire. These advantages may be separately and collectively of immense value, depending upon the circumstances. In bringing up ammunition wagons or in provisioning the troops and in enabling a retreating army to get away rapidly with their munitions, superior speed has been the greatest asset. Speed has been of little or no value in cross-country service, where even the four-wheeled driven tractor trucks, which can literally go anywhere a four-mule team can travel, are at a disadvantage. Speed may be of little or no value unless great distances can be covered without replenishment of fuel, which may be exceedingly difficult in a hostile country. Although nearly any kind of motor vehicle can carry fuel for a hundred miles, the supplying of fuel may develop into a serious problem.

The resistance of motor trucks to bullets or light artillery projectiles enables a machine to withstand rifle fire for a considerable time without being put out of action, even though it may not be provided with protective armoring. One well-placed shot will kill a horse or cripple him for,



CLIMBING IN AND OUT OF A GULLEY LIKE THIS LOOKS VERY HARD. THE FRONT WHEELS PULL WHILE THE REAR WHEELS PUSH



NUMEROUS DESERTS IN NORTHERN CHIHUAHUA

further service. A motor vehicle may be hit a number of times without striking any of the vital mechanism and still remain serviceable. Indeed, the French and English troops are now using motor trucks to tow supply wagons right to the firing-line and frequently these trailer wagons stand exposed to fire until they can be unloaded and are often left to be shot to pieces after their cargo has been removed. Under these conditions it would be impossible to use animals, as the terrific noise as well as the concussion of modern artillery and machine-guns would stampede the most seasoned animal veterans. Prior to this war it formerly required *fifty-four service wagons of 3000 pounds capacity each for a military division. To-day twenty-four motor trucks or less are doing the equivalent work.* Armies to-day cannot live off the land. The enemy may have destroyed or taken all; hence an invader must provision himself adequately, and to carry half of his tonnage in horse food when ten million men may be at the front is humanly impossible.

A NEW THING FOR THE U. S. ARMY TO USE MOTORS

On June 30, 1914, our national War Department owned but sixty-two motor trucks. Ignoring the leading powers of Europe's preparations from as early as 1907 to provide adequate motor transports, with military maneuvers lasting weeks to acquaint themselves with the potentialities of motors, the establishment of subvention systems glorifying the motor in the confidence of the

civilian-using public and increasing its popularity, most of our War Lords were content to excoriate the motor as an "experiment unsuited to American roads and unproven to supplant the old reliable army mule." The experiments of the National Guards of Massachusetts and New York with motors in their maneuvers of 1912 and '13, true, stimulated some interest in their possibilities as competitors of animal transports "maybe twenty years from now," as an old quartermaster-general expressed himself to the author, even after it had been clearly shown in these maneuvers that motors worsted mules.

ADOPTION BY UNCLE SAM UNDER PRESSURE OF EMERGENCY

Eleventh-hour emergency, not as a prophylactic, caused the War Lords of Washington to turn to the motor as the only solution of



TRAIN OF MOTOR TRUCKS TRANSPORTING ILLINOIS NATIONAL GUARD TROOPS LEAVING FORT SAM HOUSTON



TRAIN OF TRUCKS FORMED IN A HOLLOW CIRCLE FOR PROTECTION DURING AN OVER-NIGHT STOP
"SOMEWHERE IN MEXICO"

an insuperable transportation problem with mules. When slippery Pancho Villa, peculiarly flattered with the adulatory title of "General" by the American press, raided Columbus, N. M., it was necessary to send a punitive expedition after the bandits, our army heads had no alternative but to immediately call upon the motor—and with much misgivings and trepidation. Commandeering of Mexican railways would have forced diplomacy to the bursting point. European combatants had absorbed the choicest mules, and their price was too high, to say nothing of the expense of feeding and carrying every ounce of provender in a tropical, waterless waste.

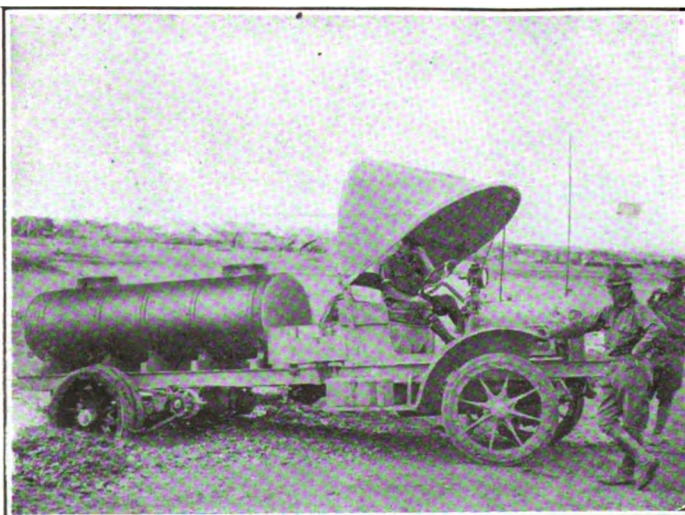
For the first time in military history en-

tire reliance, was placed in mechanical transports. For the first time in actual American war service, the motor truck and the army mule were pitted against each other under the worst conditions ever known in military service—a tropical, arid, roadless, uncivilized, provenderless (for man and beast) country. Commencing with two hurry orders of twenty-eight trucks each (constituting a company or convoy) to two large manufacturers, one in Detroit, Mich., and the other in Kenosha, Wis., which were filled within thirty hours after receipt, the Quartermaster's Division quickly placed contracts for more than a million dollars' worth of motors, and by April 1, over 200 trucks were actually on the

border and in the interior. In six weeks after Villa raided Columbus, more than 300 motors were in the service of the Funston-Pershing expedition.

MOTOR TRUCKS THE SALVATION OF OUR MEXICAN EXPEDITION

Not so dramatic as in European warfare, but far more dogmatic in results has been the motor truck's test as an engine of war in the Mexican campaign. In the July, 1913, issue of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* ("The Motor vs. the Mule in the U. S. War Department") the author gives detailed figures of the amount of



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GASOLINE TANK STUCK IN A DITCH



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GIANT TRACTOR USED BY UNITED STATES ARMY CUTS NUMBER OF MEN IN BATTERY FROM 195 TO 120 AND ELIMINATES 160 HEAD OF HORSES

provender required to provision man and beast, and the haulage capacity of the regulation four-mule army team. These data apply to "civilized" conditions of warfare—not to Mexican conditions, which are so abnormally strenuous that even if it had been climatically practical to use mules, the capacities of the loads would have been more than halved due to Mexican tractive conditions—roadless deserts with either sand or mud to the hubs of vehicles. It was physically impossible to use anything but mechanical transports, and that mechanical transport was the motor truck, because the traction engine was debarred by weight and slow speed from practical application. Without motor trucks, the national war department would have been restricted to its operations entirely on the border.

HOW THE WAR DEPARTMENT GOT THE TRUCKS ON HURRY-UP ORDERS

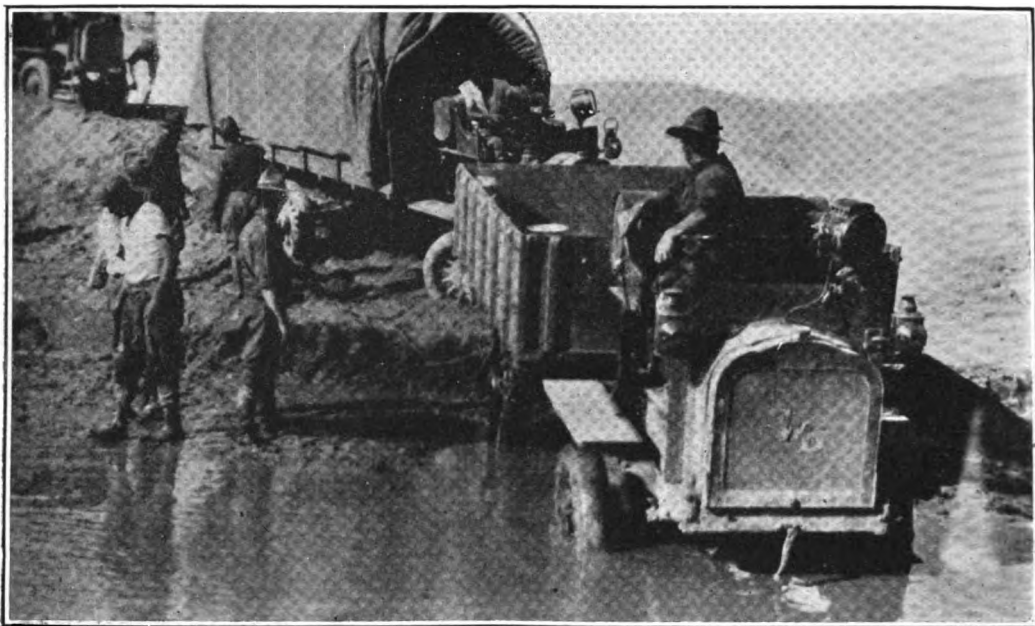
With outputs of fifteen of the largest motor truck builders of the United States more than double in normal times the capacity of the combined European motor-truck

industry, the Government found motor-truck builders prepared—indeed, no other industry save munitions makers with foreign contracts was better prepared to serve the Government in the emergency. In eight hours after a contract for fifty-six trucks valued at \$186,000 was placed, a famous Detroit builder delivered the machines complete with drivers. And an order for thirty three-ton trucks to a Bridgeport builder, placed on Monday, was delivered aboard cars bound for the border on Tuesday afternoon. A big Detroit builder with unfilled orders for several hundred trucks for the French War Department was



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AUTO TRANSPORTS IN USE IN MEXICO, EQUIPPED WITH TRAILERS



THE TRUCKS OFTEN HAD TO TURN AMPHIBIANS IN THE MEXICAN CAMPAIGN

told that the U. S. A. came first, and to consider his plant a "controlled" institution until all existing truck orders for the Mexican campaign—over 700 machines—were delivered. In a month all of the 700 trucks of this one make had been put on board cars bound for the border. On receipt of an emergency order over long-distance 'phone a Kenosha, Wis., manufacturer was able to deliver fifty-six trucks complete within three days' time.

During the critical period of early July when war with Mexico seemed imminent, the War Department, finding itself short of the all-wheel driven type of truck for the most strenuous tractive problems, placed an order on the evening of July 3 with a Clintonville, Wis., manufacturer for thirty-eight three-ton units. This manufacturer informed the Government that he had just thirty-eight of the forty-one trucks requested under final test for shipment to one of the nations at war. Uncle Sam immediately told this manufacturer that he had no choice in the matter, and that these thirty-eight trucks were to be turned over to the U. S. War Department within twenty-four hours. As a result of this monarchical message, the factory force, scheduled for a Fourth of July picnic, were compelled to show their patriotism by working overtime on Independence Day, but the trucks were delivered to Uncle Sam.

Indeed, not less than half a dozen big

truck manufacturers who accepted Uncle Sam's orders with the belief that they would have the trucks ready long before they were called for, and having continuing contracts calling for fifty to seventy-five trucks per week from the Allied Governments, were penalized many thousands of dollars by foreign governments for being overdue in shipments, and consequently to some of them the profit on the American war-order business was a minus quantity.

APPROXIMATE NUMBER OF TRUCKS NOW IN USE, KINDS AND PURPOSE FOR WHICH USED

By August 1, some 1050 commercial type motors were being used in the Mexican campaign. Of this number, approximately seven-eighths are transport trucks, *i. e.*, those for carrying troops, munitions, camping equipment, rations, etc. In addition to transport trucks, nearly 100 of both water and gas tank carrying trucks of 600 to 1000 gallons capacity are used to supply fuel to transport and munitions trucks, as well as drinking water to the men in the field, and to cool the engines of the trucks themselves, since the water is alkaline and cannot be used in the cooling systems of motor vehicles. At first, no repair or portable machine shop trucks were used, the repairs being made either at the base at Columbus or in private machine shops near by. Traveling machine-shop trucks, when later provided

were equipped with everything necessary to make roadside repairs, even of a difficult nature, one attached to each company. Armored trucks of the conventional type used in European warfare have been debarred because of excessive weight and hence difficult tractive ability, and because the Mexican campaign has really developed no need for them, of either defensive or offensive nature.

But most of the four-wheel driven type trucks are equipped with steel bodies, rifle bullet resistant and with high enough seats for men to crouch behind for protection in manning machine guns placed on either side just back of the driver's seat. Wireless plants on one-and-one-half-ton chassis establish connections with divisions in the interior and at bases, these operated by dynamos driven by the truck engines. Sectional aerials are carried on these trucks. These wireless plant motors have proved of great value in communicating with detached columns, as bandits early cut all telegraph lines to the interior. Some thirty three-ton combination rail and road motors, consisting of conventional commercial type chassis carrying regulation army bodies and provided with detachable flanges fitting over the tread of the rubber tires for operating on standard-gauge railroads are also used. No ambulance or portable hospital and anti-aircraft, gun-carrying trucks have as yet been added, as the Mexican expedition has not developed any practical need for these types. Nor have the portable kitchen trucks of the Great War yet been found necessary.

Trucks for transport are of one-and-one-half-ton capacity and fitted with regulation army bodies. They are divided into companies or convoys of twenty-eight machines, each consisting of twenty-seven trucks for hauling and one machine or repair truck, each truck company in charge of a truck master having three assistants, twenty-eight drivers, one mechanic, one mechanic's helper, one machinist. The aero squadron trucks lately added are also one-and-one-half-ton units, carrying light trailers equipped with portable hangars and spares and supplies for the new type biplanes now in service.

On June 30 last, the national War Department



THE ARMY MULE IN MEXICO GETS HIS HAY WITH A TASTE OF GASOLINE ABOUT IT

placed orders for 1958 additional motor trucks to be supplied as called for during the next Government fiscal year. Of this number, representing an additional investment of approximately \$5,500,000, there are to be furnished by the ten successful bidders some 1500 one-and-one-half-ton trucks of the rear-wheel driven type, the remainder of two- and three-ton trucks of the



From the *Popular Science Monthly*
THE TRUCKS EQUIPPED WITH THE FLANGED WHEELS CAN BE RUN OVER THE ORDINARY RAILROAD TRACKS OF STANDARD WIDTH

(The one above was loaded with munitions and carried twenty soldiers ninety-three miles at nineteen miles a hour)



© Underwood & Underwood

PLENTY OF EXTRA TIRES FOR THE TRUCK TRAIN

all-wheel driven kind, and six three-quarter-ton and two five-ton trucks. The two five-ton machines are the first of this capacity ordered, and are for experimental purposes to determine the practicality of heavy-duty trucks for service where roads and bridges will sustain these heavy machines.

The three-quarter-ton units are likewise to be experimented with in ambulance service. The contractors are required, as on the previous orders, to give precedence to the Government, even to the extent of the Government prerogative of commandeering the Allied Governments' machines if the emergency develops. All told, the national War Department has now invested and appropriated approximately \$7,500,000 for motorized equipment. Horses and mules were the transport army. Complete reconstruction has occurred in six months, draft animals being completely discarded, and no more use is to be made of animal-drawn transports.

PECULIAR PROBLEMS OF TRANSPORTATION ON THE BORDER AND IN MEXICO

Far more proof has been piled up by the United States armies in Mexico of the efficiency and dependability of the motor truck than the usage of two years in European warfare. In European war service not only have roads been far better than many American city streets, but supplies, repair facilities, etc., have been constantly hard by. The operation of motors in a tropical climate is prodigiously difficult. Everything needed for the Mexican campaign must be carried—rations, fuel, water, and that up to distances of 300 miles without the use of railways. Over the boundary are sand dunes into which trucks sink up to the hubs, arroyos, boulders, cloud-bursts of tropical climate, making the gumbo soil in a few minutes a gluey morass, sand

storms driving with force enough to fill every crevice of unprotected mechanism with destructive material, guerrillas lurking behind cactus waiting to pot drivers in the back—truly 100 per cent. more difficult handicap to make good than motors in European military service have had to endure. At times the line of communication into Mexico was 360 miles, and the mechanical transports, traveling ten miles per hour, required seventy-two hours for the round trip.

Mule teams were entirely debarred for such service. The standard travel for a four-mule team by United States army regulations is seventeen miles per day, or on a 700-mile journey, forty-two days would have been required for a mule transport as against three days for a motor convoy. Not only could a mule convoy unit not have carried any freight, but it could not have carried even forage enough to sustain itself on a forty-two-day trip. The army mule's ration consists of three quarts of oats alone, or two bushels per day per four-mule team. Traveling in axle deep sand under a tropical sun, a four-mule team could have carried only sixty-nine bushels of oats, or two bushels less than the seventy-one bushels needed for a forty-two-day trip. This comparison does not include several hundred pounds of food and water for the driver, nor the impossibility of carrying water for the mules as well. Each one-and-one-half-ton transport truck hauled as much as six mules could have pulled under Mexican conditions, and did as much mileage per day as twenty four-mule teams working in relays could have accomplished (assuming the use of mules to have been practical), costing the Government ap-



A LOAD OF "VILLA HEADS"

(This truck is hauling targets on which forms are painted to represent men, to the rifle range at Leon Springs, Texas, for target practise.)

proximately \$15 per day per truck to operate as against an estimated cost of \$125 per day of the mule-team equivalent. (This comparison is on the basis of the mule-team relays making seventeen miles each and working as did the motors twenty-four hours per day.)

WHO DRIVES THE TRUCKS,
WHAT KIND OF MEN ARE
THEY AND WHAT THEY
CONTEND WITH

When the emergency call to truck builders came, the contracts called for each truck to be supplied with a driver. Truck builders were forced to take their own testers and mechanics in a year when labor is so scarce that the press of many large industrial centers now refuse to accept "foreign" want ads for labor. So revolutionary was the change from mules to motors, and so unqualified were the enlisted men to drive and adjust trucks, that Uncle Sam had to put civilian drivers on the first 316 machines.

Often drivers had no regular hours of duty, sometimes being at the wheel the first thirty days of the Mexican campaign eighteen to twenty hours per day. Indoor men under the relentless sun by day, with teeth-chattering cold by night, frequent bad water, in trepidation of being fired on by snipers from the rear, did surprisingly well.

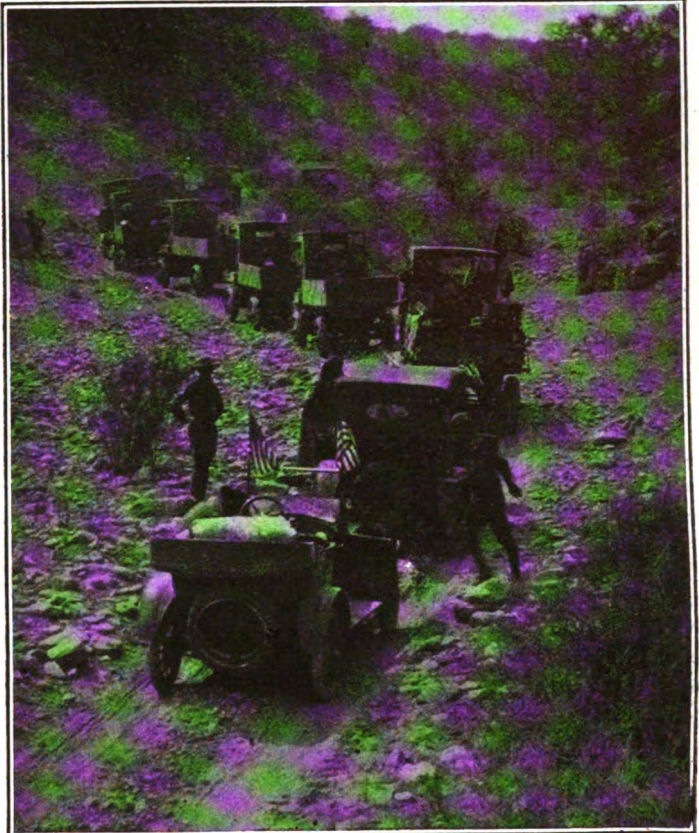
Mr. Walter Gresenz, a driver of an all-wheel power actuated motor, says:

A blazing trail, and not blazing a trail, truly describes my experience in Mexico, for it was hot enough to fry eggs right on the sand.

We crossed mountain trails 7000 feet above sea-level, plowed through alkali dust that was so thick we had to blow the horn constantly to prevent running into the man ahead or being hit by the man behind. Traveling in company, our trucks were spaced from fifty to one hundred feet apart. Men's faces became so coated with dust that it was hard to tell who they were. . . .

Mr. John McNeil, a driver of truck company No. 16, graphically recounts his experiences as follows:

I am with truck company No. 16, and our train has got a record hung up at Columbus for haul-



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UNITED STATES AUTO TRANSPORTS IN LAS CRUCES CANYON

(Last month an army train of thirty-one 3-ton motor trucks made a change of base from Columbus, N. M., to San Antonio, Tex., a distance of more than 800 miles, as an independent unit, carrying all its own supplies. The longest day's run was 126 miles, and the average was 66 miles.)

ing more tonnage and making the trip into Mexico and back in less time than any train along the border, and we sure are a happy bunch—and that means a lot for our train. At Columbus we got our trucks tuned up, loaded, and started on our first trip into Mexico, loaded with 6000 pounds per truck. Our first run was a distance of over 300 miles, which was our record trip. The roads are not to be described, for no one knows the country. . . . When a car goes over roads with five-foot-deep chuckholes, five or six miles in succession, the driver certainly knows that he went "over something." . . .

During the penetration period each truck company parked its machines at night in a hollow square, like prairie-schooner caravans in Indian frontier days, with the soldier guard doing picket duty in two-hour shifts at night. On one truck of each company a machine gun was mounted to fire around a complete circle and a squad of twelve to fifteen soldiers carried on this armored truck to repel attacks.

Immense repair shops for keeping the fleet of a thousand trucks in the highest state of

efficiency are located at Columbus, N. M., and Fort Bliss, Tex., and fifty-two big lathes are now part of the equipment. Truck mechanics are paid approximately \$100 per month and required to enlist in the army for a year. Enlisted truck drivers receive the regular pay of their rank as soldiers.

TYPES OF MOTORS AND CHASSIS BEST SUITED FOR ARMY USE

All of the first 316 Mexican expedition trucks were of the conventional commercial product of their builders, and were about equally divided between the regular two-wheel and the all-wheel or four-wheel drive type. The highly creditable performance, therefore, of motors indicated that very little if any changes for military service were necessary. These changes relate principally to the use of larger engines, lower gear ratios to give greater tractive power, large ground clearance, more space between the mechanism to give accessibility, larger radiating capacity to compensate for rapid evaporation of water in a hot climate and to cool the engines sufficiently, larger number of speeds in gear-boxes, standardization of carburetors, magnetos and Society of Automobile Engineers system of standards for all nuts, bolts, and parts so as to give the most versatile interchangeability of parts between any two makes of trucks of the same capacity.

The truck which drives and steers on all four wheels has proven the most suitable for cross-country tractive difficulties. But the performance of the conventional rear-wheel driven trucks has astonished army officials. For example, on a trip of 1000 miles in transferring supplies between new and old bases in the Mexican interior a convoy of twenty-eight chainless trucks made the last 104 miles of the journey from Casas Grandes across the border to the base camp at Columbus in ten hours. And another rear-wheel driven motor convoy made possible a troop movement which shattered every record made by the Army. An infantry regiment of 850 men boarded trucks at Fort Sam Houston and were driven seven miles to a selected site. The men detrained, formed in battle line, again boarded the trucks and were driven back to the post. The entire movement required a few minutes more than two hours. The fifteen miles covered in the movement is a good day's march for infantry under ordinary conditions. A combination rail and road truck was driven on the railway from Columbus to

El Paso, a distance of 93 miles, in a trifle under five hours, carrying eighteen soldiers. Converted into a highway truck upon arrival in ten minutes, it was driven back over the roads to Columbus the same day.

WEAR AND TEAR OF ARMY USE AND HOW IT COMPARES WITH COMMERCIAL USE

Under Mexican conditions motor trucks have had the premier test of their commercial history. Nothing could be more grueling on motor mechanism than operation in a tropical climate in roadless deserts, mountain grades and variations from 40 degrees to 130 degrees temperature. A month's service under such conditions of a motor is equivalent in severity to three or four years of the hardest commercial service. Yet many of the motor trucks sent to Mexico are still in active service, and the repairs and adjustments have been surprisingly small. If the Government decides to sell its fleet to civilian buyers when the Mexican trouble is settled their salvage value is easily now 60 per cent. of their initial cost, so trouble- and fool-proof constructed is the modern American motor truck.

WHAT KINDS OF TIRES WERE FOUND BEST IN THE MEXICAN CAMPAIGN?

The tires used were almost entirely of the demountable solid rubber type because of the advantage of quick changes in necessity, and, while the pressed-on type of solid tire, the type in which the rubber is vulcanized directly to the steel rim, gives greater mileage, replacement of this type is a machine-shop instead of a roadside job, hence the pressed-on type was debarred. Low-pressure pneumatics were used with good results on the lighter transport trucks. It is not improbable that in two or three years hence we shall see developed for army service a heavy-duty type of puncture-proof pneumatic which will double the speed of army mechanical transports and greatly increase an army's mobility.

LESSONS FOR INDUSTRIAL USE OF MOTOR TRUCKS FROM OUR ARMY EXPERIENCE

The Mexican campaign has shown to Big Business and Little Business alike that the motor truck is an indispensable ally of commerce. Its most carping critic in military and civilian life has been confounded, and former army objections have been met by an *enforced test which in the ordinary course of events might have been delayed for years.*



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PRESIDENT WILSON SIGNING THE FEDERAL CHILD LABOR ACT ON SEPTEMBER 1

(From left to right: Dr. A. J. McKelway; Mrs. Constance Leupp Todd, of the National Consumers' League; Miss Helen L. Sumner; Miss Julia C. Lathrop, chief of the Children's Bureau; Mrs. Edward Keating, of Colorado; Mrs. A. J. McKelway; Secretary Owen R. Lovejoy, of the National Child Labor Committee; Representative Edward Keating, of Colorado, and Secretary of Labor Wilson)

ANOTHER EMANCIPATION PROCLAMATION

THE FEDERAL CHILD LABOR LAW

BY A. J. MCKELWAY

(Southern Secretary, National Child Labor Committee)

IF the Federal Child Labor Act, approved September first by President Wilson, shall be held to be constitutional by the court of last conjecture, a way will have been opened, through the exercise of the power granted Congress in the interstate commerce clause of the Constitution, for the standardization of industrial conditions throughout the United States.

The first recorded protest in England against the child labor evil, made by the physicians of Manchester who had been appalled by an epidemic of fever in the Radcliffe Cotton Works, proposed "Parliamentary aid for the wise, just, and *equal* government of all such works." The hundred years' war in England for the abolition

of child labor was not so unduly prolonged by reason of constitutional difficulties inherent in a dual system of government. The decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States from the Lottery case to those under the White Slave Act have convinced many eminent lawyers that Congress can do indirectly what the British Parliament can do directly in equalizing the standards of labor and hence of living throughout the nation. The ethics of this position is fiercely assailed by the exploiters of child labor.

SENATOR BEVERIDGE AS A PIONEER

Nor should the conservative citizen feel unduly alarmed at the centralizing of authority at Washington and the consequent

destruction of local self-government. The process is one rather of coöperation than of the functions of State and nation than of conflict between federal power and the rights of the States. And the process is slow enough, as the writer is able to testify from an experience that has tested patience. It was ten years ago that Senator Beveridge, who deserves to be remembered as the pioneer in the field of federal regulation, began to exploit his views on the subject. In the Congressional campaign of 1906 he mentioned the abuse of child labor and declared that it should be ended by the power of the federal government. His audience broke out into enthusiastic applause. He tried the same thing on his next audience, with the same result, naturally gratifying to an orator, and thenceforth he made child labor reform through the action of the federal government the chief feature of the oratorical feasts he spread, announcing his purpose of introducing a child labor bill at the approaching session of Congress.

The Beveridge Child Labor bill proposed to regulate the products of any mine or factory, by prohibiting the common carriers from transporting such products unless the offer for shipment was accompanied by a certificate from the mine or factory management stating that no children under fourteen years of age were employed therein. Penalties were exacted of the innocent carrier for failing to secure a certificate and of the child-employing industry (the essential offender) merely for making a false affidavit. The bill was referred to the Senate Committee on Education and Labor, of which Senator Dolliver was chairman, and thence to the Judiciary Committee, which was then a somewhat overcrowded graveyard of progressive legislation. It was never considered by either committee, however, and Senator Beveridge's three-days' speech in the Senate was predicated upon the bill offered as an amendment to the District of Columbia Child Labor bill.

That speech made a profound impression upon the country. The first part was devoted to the folly, shame, cruelty, disgrace, horror, greed, stupidity, barbarism, and other incidental peccadilloes of the child labor system. Such an array of facts on the subject had never before been presented, and the Senator insisted upon the production of sworn testimony in the shape of affidavits from those who had contributed to the literature of child labor, in one instance a noted author cabling the affidavit from Paris

that the facts stated in her book were true.

The second part of the speech was taken up with the constitutional argument, which he based upon two premises: that the power of Congress to regulate to the extent of prohibiting the shipment of foreign goods was unlimited, and that the power of Congress over interstate commerce, being expressed in the same clause of the Constitution, was also unlimited. Therefore, so far as the power was concerned, as distinguished from the question of policy, it was constitutional to exclude from interstate commerce child-made products, or any other kind of products. This position led to the adoption of the Socratic method by the constitutional lawyers of the Senate—Spooner, Knox, Bacon, and others, while Aldrich and Tillman argued the matter from the layman's common-sense point of view. Senator Tillman, however, expressed his gratification at the recital of the facts about "this hellish business." Mr. Beveridge made Senator Spooner admit, on the one hand, that the Supreme Court was in error in its decision in the Lottery Case, while the witty Carmack drew from Beveridge the statement that Congress could prohibit the shipment of milk across a State line if the cow were milked by a red-headed girl.

The lawyers of the country as well as of Congress, took the position that the Beveridge bill, as argued in the Senate, was unconstitutional, that it not only put an unreasonable burden upon commerce in requiring industrial establishments that did not employ children, by far the greater number, to file a certificate with every shipment, but that the American citizen had rights under the Constitution which the foreigner did not possess.

The Judiciary Committee of the House, without having the bill before it, unanimously decided that Congress had no power to regulate the labor of children or of women. The attorney of the National Association of Manufacturers quoted this opinion in his opposition to the Keating-Owen bill which has just been enacted into law, but in the meantime, of the eighteen members of the Judiciary Committee of a decade ago, only three remain members of Congress, and two of these voted for the bill this year.

Providence and the people have been kind to the children.

AGITATION IN THE STATES

The National Child Labor Committee, which had been organized two years before Senator Beveridge began his agitation, endorsed by a bare majority the prin-

ciple of federal legislation and sent one of its secretaries to Washington to advocate the Beveridge bill. Upon its failure to receive consideration, the attention of the Committee was directed with intensified effort to the State campaigns. It was recognized that every State brought into line, with proper standards of legislation and of law enforcement, freed the child-workers of that State from mill-slavery and that only by this process, State by State, could a majority of Representatives and Senators be induced to support federal legislation—a prescription which is offered without charge to the advocates of woman suffrage.

The agitation for federal legislation was increased by the publication in 1907 of an analysis of the child labor statistics of 1900, and in 1908 and following years the results of an investigation by the Federal Bureau of Labor of the conditions of woman and child wage-earners in the United States. It was proved from these official sources that child labor was a national evil in extent, though mainly confined to agricultural labor and to a comparatively few child-employing trades and industries, and that it was an increasing evil, despite the efforts of State laws enacted for its suppression; that the number of working children was greater in the North, while the proportion of children to adult workers was greater in the South.

Later the Children's Bureau, also created through the advocacy of the Child Labor Committee, published the results of its investigation as to the administration of child labor laws, under the varying standards of legislation and law enforcement. The American Bar Association through its Commission on Uniform State Laws worked out and recommended to the States for adoption the Uniform Child Labor Law. Meanwhile, State after State adopted the standards outlined, in whole or in part, and the National Child Labor Committee having come unanimously to the conclusion that federal legislation was necessary, Secretary Owen R. Lovejoy, layman, worked out a bill, which has been very generally accepted by the lawyers both of Congress and of the country as reasonable and constitutional, constitutional because it is reasonable.

STANDARDS RECOGNIZED BY THE NEW FEDERAL LAW

Taking four standards of the Uniform Child Labor Law—that children under sixteen years should not be employed in mines and quarries, that children under fourteen

years should not be employed in shops and factories and canneries, nor children between fourteen and sixteen employed more than eight hours a day or during the night season—the Lovejoy bill prohibited the shipment in interstate commerce or the offer for shipment of the products of any quarry, mine, factory, or cannery where children below these recognized standards of child protection were employed. That is the heart of the bill; the rest is detail, such as the protection to the shipper of the goods by a certificate from the manufacturer that no children were so employed, and the protection to the manufacturer against deception by the parent, through allowing the presentation of a certificate in proper form setting forth the age of the child. A noteworthy feature of the bill is the provision for a board comprising the Attorney-General, the Secretary of Commerce, and the Secretary of Labor, to prepare regulations consonant with the purpose of the bill, the duty of inspection being laid upon the Department of Labor, which should properly and naturally delegate it to the Children's Bureau, while the enforcement of the law is left to the Department of Justice, District Attorneys being authorized to proceed upon the information of federal or State inspectors or anybody else interested in the enforcement of the law.

This bill, introduced last session in the House by Representative A. Mitchell Palmer, was carefully worked over by the Committee of Labor, friendly to the bill, and was changed so that only the goods produced in whole or in part by the labor of children were banned from interstate commerce. The bill thus amended passed the House by overwhelming vote and was favorably reported by the Senate Committee on Interstate Commerce, in the closing days of the session, when a single objection could defeat the taking up of the bill. Senator Overman of North Carolina was willing to offer the objection. The bill was again introduced in its original form at this session, again changed by the House Committee and it passed the House by the vote of 334 to 43, a gain of a hundred votes since the preceding session. The Senate Committee, after exhausting if not exhaustive hearings and long consideration, changed the bill back to its original form, denying the child-employing establishment the benefits of interstate commerce instead of putting the embargo on the child-made goods. Senator Robinson of Arkansas made the report on the bill, and demonstrated that the Senate substitute was

not only more easily enforceable but was more clearly constitutional.

The only opponents of the bill before the committees of Congress were certain cotton manufacturers of the cotton-manufacturing States of the South, who had formed an organization for this purpose and secured ex-Governor W. W. Kitchin of North Carolina as their attorney. Members of the House seemed rather to resent the employment of the brother of the majority leader, and Leader Claude Kitchin found an excellent excuse for non-interference with the passage of the bill, which he regarded as unconstitutional, in the fact of his brother's employment. Attorney Kitchin was reinforced by Attorney Emery of the National Association of Manufacturers, in the constitutional argument. The cotton manufacturers, who had to confess that they were employing twelve-year-old children eleven hours a day, that they wished to continue such employment, and that they had resisted the very State legislation including law enforcement, which they then held to be the wise alternative to federal legislation, unconsciously prejudiced their own case.

PRESIDENT WILSON'S PART

The rest is rather recent history. The three national conventions of 1916, Progressive, Republican, and Democratic, all demanded the speedy passage of the bill. The Democratic Steering Committee of the Senate included it in the program of measures that were to be passed before Congress adjourned. Then as the dog-days waxed sultry in Washington, and Senators began to long for the opportunity to enter the Presidential, not to say Senatorial campaign, what proved to be a lean though insistent minority of the Democratic caucus persuaded that body with the threat of unlimited debate to agree to postpone the bill until the short session. Thereupon President Wilson took a hand in the proceedings. He went to the President's Room at the Capitol, sent for some of the leaders of the party and urged that the bill be passed. The situation changed over-

night and a succeeding caucus agreed to take up the bill immediately. In behalf of the independence of the Senate, it should be said that not a vote was changed by the President's influence; on his behalf, that the measure would not now be a law except for his timely intervention. The vote, after a few days' debate, was 52 to 12 in favor of the bill. Ten of the votes were from the Southern States, though, as was the case in the House, only one-third of the Southerners were against the bill. Senators Penrose and Oliver voted against it, while Brandegee of Connecticut, Dillingham of Vermont, and Thomas of Colorado were paired against it. Senator Works adopted the characteristic course of voting for the bill in order that the Supreme Court might declare it unconstitutional as speedily as possible.

The bill favorably affects not less than a quarter of a million children under sixteen years of age at work in mines, quarries, factories, sweat-shops, and canneries, some of whom the census omitted because they were not at work or happened to be in school on the day in April when the census-taker came around. Many of them are more or less protected by State laws. But as a decade rolls around the children set free from premature or too long continued daily toil may be counted by the million. The example of the federal government will be a potent one to the more backward States and the friends of the children will be left unhampered by the only organized opposition that has hitherto been successful, when they attempt to bring up all the States to the best standards. The neglected problem of child labor on the farm can now be solved with due regard to the welfare of the child and his opportunities for education. The conscienceless offenders against public morals are always more careful when Uncle Sam decides that what was immoral shall be also criminal. The beginning of the end of the system in America may be seen.

President Wilson signed a second Emancipation Proclamation on September 1, 1916. It goes into effect a year from that date.



THE MINIMUM WAGE BY LAW

A REPORT UPON THE STATUS OF THE MOVEMENT

THREE years ago the National Civic Federation undertook a thorough study of the problems underlying the proposal to fix a minimum wage by law in this country, and also of the actual experience of those States which have adopted such laws. A Minimum Wage Commission was appointed, whose members were Alexander J. Porter (chairman), president of the Shredded Wheat Company, and Percy S. Straus, of R. H. Macy & Co., New York, representing employers; James W. Sullivan, of the Brooklyn Typographical Union, and H. J. Conway, secretary of the Retail Clerks' International Protective Association, representing labor; Mrs. Lyndsay Van Rensselaer and Miss Thalia Newton Brown, of the Woman's Department, National Civic Federation; and Dr. Lee K. Frankel, Ralph M. Easley, and Miss Gertrude Beeks (secretary), representing the public.

In July, this commission's report was made public in the form of a pamphlet entitled "The Minimum Wage by Law," issued by the National Civic Federation from its headquarters in New York City.

The commission secured the services of Miss Marie L. Obenauer, an expert investigator in economic fields, who made a thorough and impartial survey of the situation from a world-wide standpoint. Miss Obenauer's analysis forms a part of the report.

THE MOVEMENT IN THIS COUNTRY

Minimum-wage laws in this country apply to women and children only, in certain industries. The principle of such legislation is that the State, in the exercise of the police power, and working through commissions or wage boards, shall determine a wage below which it shall be illegal to pay workers in certain industries. The chief factor considered by these boards is the cost of living.

Minimum-wage laws have been adopted in eleven States: Arkansas, California, Colorado, Kansas, Massachusetts (which led the way, in 1912), Minnesota, Nebraska, Utah, Washington, Wisconsin, and Oregon. Miss Obenauer calls attention to the fact that although nearly a fourth of our States have such laws, many of them in effect for several

years, experience with actual minimum-wage determinations is limited. She praises the deliberation with which commissions have acted—making preliminary surveys of women-employing industries and securing data as to the cost of living, in order to make determinations with the fullest possible knowledge. But she emphasizes the fact that minimum-wage legislation is still *on trial* in this country.

The Massachusetts commission, for example, made its first award effective in August, 1912, two years after it was created; and then the determination applied merely to the brush industry, which employs only 2000 workers, including men, women and children. The California commission consumed three years before putting into effect its first determination, relating to minimum piece rates for women in certain phases of the canning industry. The longest period of experimentation in minimum-wage determinations which affected any considerable number of workers in a single industry is to be found in the retail stores of Oregon.

The Oregon law, creating an Industrial Welfare Commission, has been carried to the United States Supreme Court as a test case to determine the constitutionality of minimum-wage legislation; and both advocates and adversaries eagerly await a decision.

Miss Obenauer declares that "no one familiar with the accumulated mass of evidence concerning the wages of women at work will deny that in spite of the increased wage rates in recent years, a menacingly large number of adult women are failing to earn enough while at work to sustain themselves in health and comfort, to say nothing of providing for the days of involuntary unemployment."

Women constitute a fifth of the total number of wage-earners in manufacturing industries in the United States. In a Government investigation, it was found that of 86,000 women wage-earners sixteen years of age and older (in certain manufacturing and mill industries), over 40 per cent were receiving less than six dollars a week and approximately three-fourths were receiving less than eight dollars.

NEITHER CAPITAL NOR LABOR UNITED

The National Civic Federation's commission, in the course of its investigation, found that the most conspicuous feature of the minimum-wage controversy is the fact that capital and labor do not mark the lines of cleavage. In California, organized labor openly, actively, and officially opposed minimum-wage legislation, as also did the organized wage-earning women. On the other hand, the Central Labor Union of Brooklyn, N. Y., favors such legislation as a means of bringing to an end as speedily as possible "most inhuman conditions so prevalent in all underpaid industries." John Mitchell, former president of the United Mine Workers of America, and present Chairman of the New York State Industrial Commission, favors a minimum wage for the two obviously defenseless classes, women and children, in the lowest paid occupations. Yet President Samuel Gompers states that the American Federation of Labor "is not in favor of fixing, by legal enactment, certain minimum wages"; for it "has apprehensions as to the wisdom of placing in the hands of the Government additional powers which may be used to the detriment of the working people." But the Federation of Labor is in favor of fixing the maximum number of hours of work for minors and women; and it regards children, women minors anyway, and perhaps women, as wards of the nation who have no political rights and have not thus far protected themselves industrially as the men have.

Employers show little, if any, more crystallization on the subject. A recent report of the National Manufacturers' Association is adverse to minimum-wage legislation, and believes the proposal economically unsound; yet the Retail Dry Goods Associations of San Francisco and of California endorsed the proposal before it became a law in that State.

Some of the objections of employers were stated by Walter Drew, counsel of the National Erectors' Association, at a public meeting held by the Civic Federation's Minimum Wage Commission. He emphasized the practical difficulties in connection with the necessity of putting into force a minimum wage based upon the cost of living. "Who shall say that a certain thing is a necessity, a comfort, or a luxury?"

In Wisconsin it was expected that \$7 would be the minimum established; but an investigation determined that it should be \$9.20; and it was found impossible to enforce that standard.

Naturally, too, employers look with little

favor on the prospect of more investigations of their books and more dislocation of their factory or store organization.

ATTITUDE OF THE PUBLIC

In the public meeting referred to above, Dr. N. I. Stone—the statistician of the Wage Scale Board of the Dress and Waist Industry in New York—put the case for the minimum wage as follows:

A minimum wage fixed by legislation or by a minimum-wage board has in mind to fix a wage for those whom the union has not been able to reach and fix it at a minimum which is drawn by the starvation line. . . . It is to reach in this country only those women and children workers who, through lack of skill, inability to get organized, inability of the trades unions to help them, are earning to-day less than a living wage; and it proceeds from the economic theory that an industry that cannot for any reason pay sufficiently to its workers, or to any part of its workers, enough to enable them to make a living, is a parasitic industry, and has no right to exist if it cannot give a living wage. . . . You cannot by any means of litigation raise the efficiency of a worker that is periodically starving. The starving worker is anything but efficient. Efficiency is a very important question, and in the studies of the Tariff Board, which embraced several industries, we have found that the economy of low wages is a very poor economy; that it is the high wage that is usually synonymous with efficiency. High wage does not necessarily lead to efficiency; but it is the condition without which you cannot have efficient workers.

The commission found that among the public—as distinguished from employers and wage-earners—the chief arguments in favor of the legislation were:

- (1) Wage boards recognize the impossibility of the individual worker dealing with the employer on equal terms.
- (2) The great mass of women workers, because of their youth and their brief tenure of industrial status, are unorganized and are likely to remain so.
- (3) As it is a distinct menace to the common weal that these women—prospective mothers of men—should work for subnormal wages, the State is forced to take action.

The judgment of this Minimum Wage Commission is that experience is not yet sufficient to justify any conclusion. "It seems for the present the part of wisdom for all the States not having minimum-wage laws, to watch those which have enacted such statutes, for a reasonable period before adopting similar legislation."

The commission will continue its own studies, but endorses Miss Obenauer's suggestion that a joint investigation be conducted by the Department of Labor and the Department of Commerce.

THE GREATEST MINING BOOM IN HISTORY

BY WALTER V. WOHLKE

THESE are super-extraordinary times, so crowded with epochal events that the greatest mining boom the world has ever seen, a boom alongside of which the "days of forty-nine," the mad whirl around the Comstock lode, the Alaska and the Gold-field excitement were mere pigmies, has grown up, filled the Far Western horizon to the zenith, and begun to recede again without making an impression upon public consciousness. Yet this boom, this superlative activity of the American metal mines, was the foundation of the ammunition business, the source that supplied the zinc, lead, quicksilver, tungsten without which the Allies could never have waged a successful war against the Central Powers. And the by-products of this superlative boom, the torrent of dividends, the tales of sudden fortune, the sky-rocketing of mining shares, in their quantity and volume surpass all similar episodes in the history of American metal-mining.

AMERICAN ZINC CONTROLS THE WORLD'S MARKET

It began with zinc, the metal whose producers have consistently asked for a stiff duty to protect them against ruinous foreign competition. Spelter—the trade name for zinc—was on the down-grade, with stocks going up and prices declining, for two years before the war. In July, 1914, the price dropped to 4.75 cents a pound, the lowest since 1908. When the war disorganized commerce and industry the world over, zinc slumped still farther. In common with all American metal mines, the zinc producers curtailed operations when the industries of peace reduced their output. During the dark winter of 1914-15 shares of zinc, copper, lead, and silver mines were on the bargain table, with few buyers. The war demand for metals had not yet begun. Few men realized the unprecedented quantities of metal required by modern war. Yet the zinc producers should have known. They were warned.

American zinc has never been exported

in large quantities. In January, 1914, only 230 tons were shipped abroad, and the average for the succeeding five months fell below this figure. In September of the first war year the exports reached the unprecedented height of 19,000 tons. In October 10,000 tons went to Europe, yet the price continued to decline. The analytic faculties of the American zinc producers seemed to be paralyzed by the catastrophe. They had the world's spelter business in the hollow of their hand and did not know it.

There is no lack of zinc ore in Europe; Germany, Austria, Belgium, Italy, Spain, Russia, northern France, all have it; Australia has great zinc mines; deposits have been newly opened in Burma and Siberia, but the concentrates of all these mines are reduced in German-controlled smelters located in Germany and Belgium. When the war broke out, Great Britain found herself with an abundant supply of zinc ore and wholly insufficient plants to smelt more than a fraction of it. Thus the United States in a twinkling became the sole source of metallic zinc for all the warring world except the Central Powers. And zinc constitutes one-third of the brass indispensable in the manufacture of ammunition. Early in 1915 the American zinc producers, focusing their eyes upon world conditions, suddenly realized that the power to fix the price of spelter had passed from Frankfort to Missouri. So they took a deep, joyful breath, and proceeded to fix the price.

They sent zinc up a cent, two cents, even three cents at a time. It leaped from five cents in January to twenty-seven cents in June, closing the year 1915 at seventeen cents a pound.

In September of the present year it was still bringing nine cents a pound, twice the average price of the last fifteen years notwithstanding a production almost double that of 1913. Never before had the zinc districts of Missouri, Oklahoma, of New Jersey and the Far West experienced greater prosperity—and probably they will never again see a period like it. Scores of new mines were

opened, especially in the Joplin district; old mines unable to operate when zinc brought only five cents a pound started up again. Zinc ore that was dumped, zinc tailings, and the leanest of zinc deposits were worked up. And the established zinc producers fairly spouted dividends. Prior to 1914 the Butte & Superior had paid no dividends on its share capital of \$2,700,000; since then this one mine has disbursed over \$40,000,000 to its stockholders. During the first six months of 1916 it was producing zinc at the rate of 180,000,000 pounds a year, with a profit of a million a month. The Interstate-Callahan, an Idaho zinc producer, saw its shares slump to 50 cents a few years ago. In the year preceding the outbreak of the war operations showed a deficit. Since April, 1915, \$4,000,000 have been paid out in dividends and the shares climbed to \$27. The New Jersey Zinc Company in eighteen months declared dividends in excess of \$15,000,000 and the Caledonia produced similar results.

A PROBLEMATIC FUTURE FOR THE INDUSTRY

Yet there is a fly in the zinc ointment. Great Britain by special legislation has annulled the contracts which would have compelled the Australian producers to resume delivery of their zinc concentrates to the German smelters after the war, thus breaking a well-settled principle of international law in order to build up a British zinc-smelting industry. As a result of this step the Allies are rapidly becoming independent of American zinc as their new smelters are blown in. But in the meantime the capacity of the American zinc smelters has been almost doubled. And the German and Belgian smelters are still ready for business. A child can figure out that a hard road with many bumps lies ahead of the American zinc industry. World competition in the zinc trade will be fiercer than ever when peace comes, so fierce that only those American properties which have used a part of their war profits to cut production costs to the bone can face the future with equanimity.

ASSURED PROSPERITY FOR COPPER PRODUCERS

Copper is in an entirely different position. Except for a temporary disturbance due to the necessity of readjusting the world's entire industrial structure when peace comes, the copper interests do not expect a sharp or prolonged depression. Supplying 60 per cent. of the world's production, the United

States fears no competitor in the copper market. Its best customer, Germany, the market that formerly absorbed more than one-third of the entire American copper exports, is in the throes of a copper famine. It has used up its stock of the red metal and has even confiscated immense quantities of manufactured copper to meet the pressing military demands. Germany's national cupboard is bare of copper, but Germany's remarkable electrical industry will resume business when peace comes. Stocks of raw and manufactured copper must be replaced in Germany the moment the ocean lanes are reopened, and the impending German demand, plus domestic consumption, will almost suffice to keep the American mines busy.

The Allied countries, though, are not very much better supplied with copper than their opponents. Owing to the unprecedented price of the red metal and the excessive ocean freights, the British, French, and Italian industries have almost used up their accumulated copper stocks and are now living from hand to mouth, their purchases keeping barely a month ahead of current requirements. They likewise must stock up to meet the reconstruction needs. And since almost the same situation exists in the American copper-consuming industries, the producers are justified in expecting a long period of normal prosperity, though this prosperity will fall far short of the present delirious war profits.

In warfare copper and its alloys are almost indispensable. Even the pigmy military establishment of the United States in peace times requires 20,000,000 pounds of copper per annum. Hostilities, of course, immediately send copper consumption skyward. And when warfare is conducted on the present European scale, the belligerent copper appetite turns into a ravenous craving. Yet the copper industry in the fall of 1914 did not foresee the full extent of the impending military demand. The copper producers refused to believe that an entire continent would organize itself for the sole pursuit of scientific slaughter. They expected a short, sharp war attended by complete derangement of the normal industrial activities, and upon this premise they based their actions. When copper slumped from 13 to 11 cents a pound, mines and smelters curtailed their production 40 per cent. and prayed for a speedy peace. Instead they received a long war and a copper boom that dwarfs all the famous gold stampedes in mining history.

PRICES MORE THAN DOUBLED IN TWO YEARS

According to the Geological Survey, the average cost of producing a pound of copper in 1914 was 8.62 cents. In December, 1914, the average New York selling price was 12.75 cents a pound; a year later the price had risen to 20.67 cents. From December 15, 1915, the price went up a cent a week for six consecutive weeks. In May of this year it reached 29 cents and in August it still hovered around 25 cents a pound, even though copper was flying out of the ground at a rate considered impossible of attainment only a few years ago. The true proportions of the great copper boom are graphically shown in the following table giving the quantity and value of the American copper production in round figures for a series of years:

Year	Production in pounds	Value
1895.....	380,000,000	\$40,000,000
1900.....	606,000,000	98,000,000
1905.....	888,000,000	137,000,000
1910.....	1,080,000,000	137,000,000
1913.....	1,224,000,000	189,000,000
1914.....	1,150,000,000	152,000,000
1915.....	1,388,000,000	242,000,000
1916 (estimated).....	1,600,000,000	400,000,000

In 1916 the State of Arizona promises to produce 600,000,000 pounds of copper, a quantity equal to the total production of the United States in 1900. A single Utah mine, the Utah Copper Company's property, is this year producing 185,000,000 pounds, an increase of 70,000,000 over its 1914 output and a larger yield than the aggregate production of all the mines in Michigan during 1914. From Alaska to Chile the flood of red metal pouring forth in answer to the call of extraordinary prices has become broad and deep enough to drown the anxious fear of a potential copper shortage. The copper mines of the United States, of North and South America, have demonstrated that their yield will be equal to the rising demand for many years to come. So far as copper is concerned, the electrization of the world may proceed apace.

LEAD HAS A PART IN THE GENERAL ADVANCE

Lead has not been as spectacular in its behavior as zinc and copper, but in its quiet, steady way it has shared in the metal prosperity that grew out of Europe's blood. The lead mines of Missouri, Idaho, Colorado, and Utah were paying excellent dividends when the metal brought 4½ cents. The war demand has lifted the price to 6 cents a pound, an increase of \$30 a ton, and the output

has grown by 100,000 tons. The lead districts are watching the European holocaust with equanimity, especially since silver, by-product of the Far Western lead ores, rose from 49 cents an ounce, its low point, to 68 cents early in September.

EVEN QUICKSILVER SHARES IN THE UPWARD MOVEMENT

The quicksilver mines of California were in a state of coma before the war. The margin between the selling price of \$37.50 per flask of 75 pounds and the cost of production was so small that the larger properties were operated merely to conserve the investment. As England immediately placed an embargo on quicksilver, the American price doubled in August, 1914, though the real quicksilver boom did not begin until nearly a year and a half later when, under the stimulus of the enormous American demand, the price soared to \$300 a flask, even though scores of old and new mines were adding to the output. Unfortunately the British Government, to help American ammunition firms, lifted a corner of its embargo and allowed several thousand flasks of Spanish quicksilver to cross the Atlantic, bringing the California price down to \$100 a flask in a few weeks. Still, quicksilver has been very profitable, and the output, both in quantity and value, is establishing new high records.

TUNGSTEN'S SOARING PRICE

Tungsten gives the high-speed tool steel its hardness and enables the steel to retain its temper in great heat. While the world's machine shops were working under normal peace conditions, ore containing 60 per cent. of tungstic acid sold at \$6.50 per unit of twenty pounds. Boulder County, Colorado, and San Bernardino County, California, supplied the bulk of the American output. When machine shops in all the world began turning out rifles, shells, and cannon, the demand for high-speed tool steel rose so rapidly that tungsten early in 1916 soared to \$130 per unit.

This spectacular performance was of short duration, but while it lasted the West became tungsten-mad. In a dozen States beyond the Rockies tungsten deposits were found, even Alaska contributing to the rising output. Hundreds of prospectors working placer claims with crude equipment accumulated profits of \$50 and \$100 a day, selling their ore to the buyers of the tool-steel makers who scoured the mountains and deserts for the precious alloy material. Of

course a slump was inevitable, but nevertheless tungsten is still far above the pre-war quotations.

VANADIUM

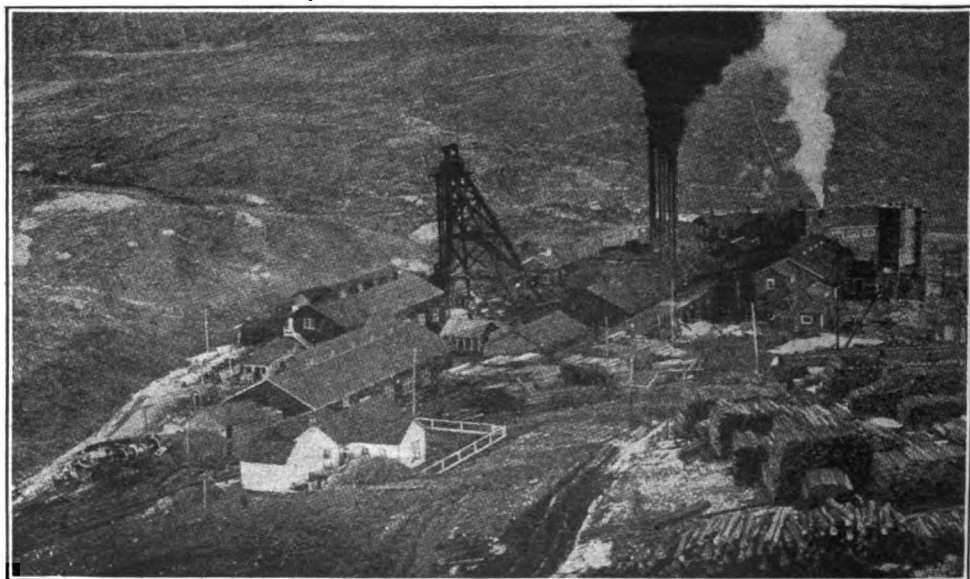
The high cost of tungsten limits its use to the production of comparatively small quantities of high-speed tool-steel. Vanadium, though, enters directly into the steel used in the manufacture of cannon, automobile and aeroplane parts and other appliances requiring steel of great hardness and high tensile strength. Twenty years ago vanadium was so rare that its value was twenty times that of gold. With the discovery of large vanadium ore deposits in Peru, at an elevation of three miles, the cost came down and the use of the metal in the steel industry broadened rapidly. Since the outbreak of the war the stock of the American Vanadium Company, controlling the Peruvian mines, has risen from \$152 to \$600 a share. Late in the summer J. L. Replogle, the young operator who cleaned up a million and a half in Cambria Steel, repeated the performance when he organized a syndicate of Eastern financiers to take over the Vanadium Company at \$1,000 a share.

A BOOM WITHOUT SPECULATION

Antimony, chrome, magnesite, manganese, molybdenum, talc, cadmium, and other minerals shared in the prosperity that followed in the train of the great slaughter. Never before had metals of every kind been in greater demand at higher prices. Never be-

fore had the Western mines employed more men at higher wages. Never before had mining companies paid greater dividends for as long a period. Yet—and this is perhaps the most remarkable feature of the mining boom—speculation in mining shares was almost totally absent. Stocks that were paying dividends of 60 to 100 per cent. per annum on par rose in value, but not to dizzy heights. The mining industry was not intoxicated with war profits. It realized plainly that the extra dividends could not last and it refused to throw its money into a runaway bull market. Also, it refused to countenance the fake promoter. The general public, the public that had been sandbagged and had its pockets picked by hundreds of get-rich-quick artists during the Goldfield excitement, to-day hardly knows that the biggest boom in history has come and is going. Thanks to blue-sky legislation, it has saved its money.

The volume of ammunition and war supplies manufactured in the United States is beginning to shrink. The Allies will soon have reorganized their industries sufficiently to dispense with the bulk of the American ammunition capacity. But, whether the manufacturing process is carried on in Europe, America, or Japan, the stream of raw material must flow unceasingly. Irrespective of the workshops' location, they must have metals to keep themselves busy and the war going. And so far no substitutes have been discovered for the metals the principal source of which is the United States.



THE BUTTE & SUPERIOR COPPER MINE, MONTANA

COKE-OVEN AMMONIA FOR MUNITIONS

By J. W. TURRENTINE, PH. D.

(Scientist, Bureau of Soils, U. S. Department of Agriculture)

IT is a very healthful reconnaissance that the nation now is making of its resources and industries in relation to national preparedness for defense. For the first time in this country it has become recognized that successful wars are to be fought as much with mine and factory and skilled labor as with gun and battleship and armies. The nation finds itself peculiarly independent of foreign sources of materials essential to a state of preparedness—of food materials, the metals, fuels, fabrics, and likewise explosives.

Since for the manufacture of the various explosives for munitions purposes we have been using nitric acid obtained exclusively from sodium nitrate imported from Chile, the impression has come to prevail that we have no domestic source of nitric acid, and, therefore, that in case of war with a nation of sufficient maritime strength to enforce a blockade, we should be seriously embarrassed.

A CHEAP SOURCE OF NITRIC ACID

Upon investigation it develops that we have a domestic source of raw materials from which nitric acid may be prepared; that this source is now large and rapidly growing, and that it is susceptible of a practically unlimited development should necessity or public exigency demand. The source meant is the ammonia recovered as a by-product in the distillation of coal for the production of coke and gas. This readily may be converted into nitric acid by an inexpensive method.

That it has not become more generally recognized as a source of nitric acid is because it has found a ready market in that other great industry dependent on cheap nitrogen compounds, the fertilizer industry, to which it contributes about 40 per cent. of the nitrogen now consumed therein, and because commercial methods of converting ammonia into nitric acid are new and imperfectly understood. The explosives industry

has been content with its abundant and convenient supply of raw materials obtainable from Chile and, therefore, has not demanded the development of an additional supply. The question has never before arisen in a popular way; hence the popular misconception.

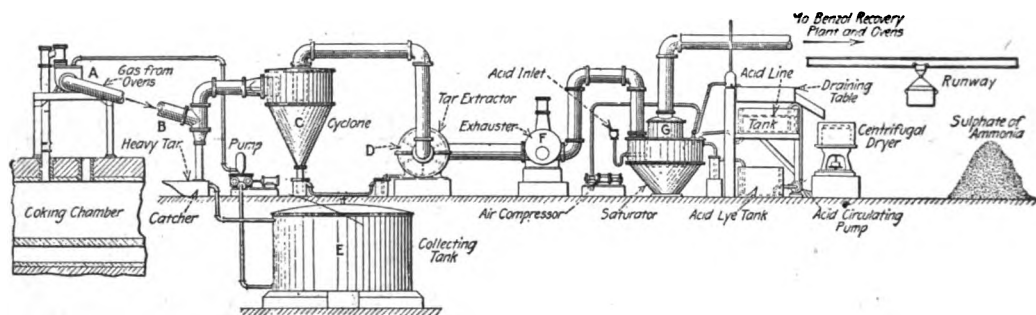
In time of blockade, with Chilean nitrate no longer available, ammonia would be the main nitrogenous compound available in this country for munitions and fertilizer purposes. To what extent would this be adequate to meet the demands of the country in such an emergency?

THE VISIBLE SUPPLY

The present production of ammonia in this country is from two main sources: (1) By-product coke ovens, and (2) coal gas and bone-carbonizing works. The production of ammonia from the former source has developed from an output of 13,800 tons in 1900 to 234,000 tons in 1916, a development due to the transition from the wasteful bee-hive to the by-products coke oven, making possible the conservation of by-products. This is a development which is taking place normally, in response to ordinary economic and business laws, without apparent stimulation or artificiality. This is what we have available for normal conditions, a supply which appears entirely adequate for any development now contemplated.

In time of emergency the bulk of the ammonia produced would be immediately available for conversion into nitric acid for munitions purposes. All of that normally entering the fertilizer trade could be so applied, since, it is remembered, the staple food and forage crops on which a nation depends in times of emergency are produced in this country without the aid of fertilizers. Agricultural production would even be restricted, in case of blockade, since we normally produce a great deal more than we consume.

In contrast with the foregoing is the situation in Germany, where the normal produc-



A MODERN COKE OVEN (THE SIMON-CARVES SYSTEM) FOR THE RECOVERY OF AMMONIA AS A BY-PRODUCT IN DISTILLATION OF COAL FOR THE PRODUCTION OF COKE AND GAS

tion of by-product ammonia is 550,000 tons ammonium sulfate (1913). This was applied to agriculture. Conditions made necessary a stimulated agricultural production instead of a restricted one, so that it was not possible to withdraw the ammonia from agriculture for munitions purposes without impairing an already inadequate food supply. Therefore extreme measures had to be adopted to increase the supply of ammonia.

HOW PRODUCTION COULD BE INCREASED

If the above quantities of ammonia were not adequate, the first step would be to replace all bee-hive ovens with the by-product form, whereby the ammonia now lost from these would be saved. This would be effecting at once (by the Government) that which is now being accomplished more slowly by the industry itself. Since the ammonia so produced could be regarded as a by-product, its cost would be negligible, since it is a by-product.

Another of the by-products obtained from the proposed by-product ovens would be combustible gas, about 5000 cu. ft. per ton of coal coked. If so desired, and if additional ammonia were required, this gas could be used with gas engines to generate electrical energy for the electrical fixation of atmospheric nitrogen by any approved method. For example, the gas lost (in 1914) in coking 35,000,000 tons coal in bee-hive ovens would have yielded over 800,000 continuous horse-power, which was sufficient for the fixation of an amount of nitrogen equivalent to an additional 1,400,000 tons ammonium sulfate. The gas, being a by-product, is produced at slight cost and the installation for the development of the power is limited

to comparatively inexpensive gas engines.

As a concrete proposition, in case the normal production of by-product ammonia were not sufficient for the emergency at hand, it would be possible for the Government to install by-product ovens and use the gas for the generation of electrical energy for the fixation of nitrogen. This could be put into operation quickly and at a comparatively small cost. Ammonia would be produced as a by-product at the same time, and use could be made of the coke and other products. This source of power could be expanded enormously by the utilization of the very great quantities of waste and low-grade coals, the lignites and even the peats available, all of which on distillation yield ammonia and combustible gas suitable for use in gas engines.

Or should it be desired to effect a permanent and large production of ammonia, the use of coke could be encouraged by restricting the use of bituminous coal where coke can be used as advantageously. The Government itself could produce coke and sell it at the same price as coal, reserving to itself the ammonia and other by-products. Not only would by-products worth \$1.50 per ton of coal be conserved, but an increase of about 20 per cent. in the efficiency of the coal as a producer of power would be effected. Likewise, the smoke nuisance would be abated.

It is a suggestion which is deserving of very careful consideration; for, with the coal now wastefully used is lost enormous quantities of ammonia and benzol (and power). This rigid conservation would afford agriculture the best of fertilizers, and the public as a whole an excellent motor fuel, at a fraction of their present cost.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

IS THE WAR MAKING RUSSIA PROSPEROUS?

THIS question is being discussed in the Russian press with unabated interest. The first to introduce it and answer it in the affirmative was Prince Eugene Troubetzkoy. In an article in the *Russkoye Slovo*, of Moscow, Prince Troubetzkoy, who is one of Russia's foremost publicists and philosophers, several months ago pointed out the extraordinary condition being observed in Russian economic life, namely, that a prosperity has set in in the country such as it has hardly ever known. A number of leading economists thereupon took up the question, and at present there is scarcely a Russian paper or magazine which has not had one or more articles on the subject. Prince Troubetzkoy wrote:

The prosperity of our rural population in times of a world war is a remarkable, astounding paradox. About two years ago such a thing would have been impossible, but now it is a fact on which all observers of our rural life agree. The farmers, landowners, and all others who reside in the country or come in close contact with its life concur in the opinion that our village is prospering now as never before for three reasons: First, because of the prohibition of alcohol; second, because the wives of the reservists receive sufficient support from the government; third, because the peasantry is earning high wages.

The most eloquent proof of the prosperity of our villages is the added billion rubles (since Prince Troubetzkoy wrote the article another billion has been added!) in our savings banks since the beginning of the war. The ban on alcohol amply accounts for this billion. But the monetary billion should be multiplied several times in order to get the nation's prosperity, for prohibition has raised the productivity of the country many times.

We are observing a phenomenon unique in the history of the world. In war times, it has been an axiom, the productivity of a nation is diminished. All enterprises by a government at war are intended for destructive, and not constructive, purposes. In Russia you find the reverse, you witness a colossal increase in the nation's power of productivity.

I had numerous occasions to inquire of peasants if they needed any help, and every time I received an astonishing reply. In spite of the

habit of the Russian peasant always to complain, I was told that there was no acute need now—that the wives of the soldiers need nothing, and the more children they have the better off they are, as they get larger allowances, which cannot be spent on alcohol. In some cases I heard of paupers and down-and-outs who became prosperous. Not long ago an ex-drunkard was pointed out to me with this remark: "You see his boots? Well, it is the first time in his life that he has been shod." The man, smiling blissfully, confirmed the compliment. Generally, the village is now more and better shod than ever before, and this in spite of the fact that shoes cost more than double the price paid before the war. . . .

From a social worker engaged in fighting high prices I hear that the rise on everything is to a great extent due to the increased demands of the village. It is, indeed, very logical that those who save will not suffer any want. A large part of the products before manufactured for our urban population is being drawn off by our villagers.

The prosperity of the Russian peasantry, according to the report of the government census-takers in the Province of Kaluga, is rapidly proving a harmful factor in the life of the Russian primeval village. Luxury is becoming an ordinary element in the moujik's home life, while he neglects to spend on his household and farm improvements. Their report says:

It is not infrequently now that one finds in our village toilet soap, metal ornaments, and even perfumery. At the same time domestic economy is not progressing but deteriorating. The amount of cattle is decreasing, new machinery is not being acquired, even buildings are not being repaired.

This statement is flatly denied by an expert on rural Russia in the *Zemski Vestnik* of Tambov, which is in the interior of the country. He is a farmer himself and he writes:

The peasants are buying not only luxuries, but also cows, horses, agricultural machinery. In the two winters of the war the elementary schools have been regularly attended by the pupils. Why? Because the children had warm clothes on and were well shod. . . . All are

at present working in our villages with greater intensity and productivity than in the ante-bellum years.

In the *Retch*, a Petrograd newspaper, for August 12, one writer shows that the reason for the peasant's failure to improve his estate, in spite of his savings, is the almost absolute lack in the market of the commodities required. There is no agricultural machinery. Home and foreign factories are too busy in turning out munitions. There are no horses to be had unless at absolutely prohibitive prices. The same is true of cattle, which the army consumes in enormous quantities. The moujik, therefore, postpones all fundamental improvements till the end of the war. Meanwhile he is saving his earnings. The conclusion to be drawn is obvious. The termination of the war will find the Russian peasantry in the market with handfuls of gold, seeking to buy all that money can get. But besides the peasantry are the other classes of Russia's population prosperous? In a series of articles in the *Russkia Vedomosti*, of Moscow, Z. Katzenelenbaum, a financial writer, answers the question in the affirmative:

Russia's commercial-industrial class is prospering, and one hears no complaints from it. Russian industries in nearly all branches are being run at high profits. There are, of course, exceptions. The brewing industry has suffered, but the sad voices of the brewers are drowned in the chorus of the whole class. As to the merchants, their profits have risen with the steady rise in the prices of all articles. A higher price is of advantage to big, middle, and petty business alike.

Have Russia's landowners suffered through the war? There have seemed to exist certain circumstances justifying such an assumption. Nevertheless, one hears no complaints from that quarter. The agrarian banks report that the payments are coming in very regularly this year, which proves the sound condition of the land-owning class. It would appear that the very profitable realization of the crops has covered the deficit due to the decrease in the amount of arable land.

As to the labor class matters are not so brilliant. Some canvasses show that labor conditions have grown worse during the war. But Russia's labor class is, indeed, not very large, and a rise in wages has come through the war in every branch of labor. Some of the more qualified lines of labor receive wages higher than ever before.

With the industrial, commercial, land-proprietary, peasant, and even labor classes prospering, it is evident that the general condition of the country is prosperous.

GERMAN WAR FINANCE

A LEADING German economist, Professor Moritz Julius Bonn, of Munich, has lectured since the outbreak of the war at the Universities of California and Wisconsin and at Cornell University. Last month he contributed to the *New York Tribune* a remarkable series of articles on the war finance of Germany.

In the first of these articles, published on September 5, the writer emphasizes the fact that Germany's war loans have been contracted at home. Her foreign obligations do not amount, all told, to more than \$50,000,000, and interest requirements for government loans abroad will not exceed \$2,000,000 a year. The main cost of the war has been defrayed from domestic loans. The first of these, issued in September, 1914, was subscribed by the public at 97½; the second loan, in February, 1915, at 98½; the third loan, in August, 1915, at 99; the fourth loan, in March, 1916, at 98½. The results of these several loans were:

First loan	\$1,061,905,000
Second loan	2,157,380,000
Third loan	2,881,190,000
Fourth loan	2,550,475,000

There are also short-term treasury bills outstanding and Dr. Bonn says that it is difficult to estimate the average amount of these. He states that occasionally, for a short time, the \$2,000,000,000 mark has been reached. He estimates that this floating war debt varies between 10 per cent. and 20 per cent. of the funded debt.

The German taxpayer was not at first called upon to shoulder any new burdens, on account of the war. The interest on the new war debt for the first year was provided by the surplus of the regular budget, realized through the transfer of the expenditure for the army and navy to the war budget. Later on, however, the taxpayer was asked for about \$125,000,000 in new taxes, besides a tax on war profits. The interest of the permanent debt thus far contracted must be between \$400,000,000 and \$500,000,000 a year.

There has been much discussion of the question whether the greater proportion of war expenses should be paid by the present generation or handed on to posterity. Dr. Bonn maintains that since the burden of fighting and suffering falls heavily on the

present generation, while posterity will enjoy the fruits of the war, it is only fair that future generations should bear their share in cash payment. This he holds to be an especially sound policy in the case of a country which, like Germany, is fighting for existence. Great Britain, he asserts, has herself been obliged to adopt new methods of finance, and neither she nor her Allies, France and Russia, are financing the war by taxation. They are depending on loans. Up to the month of August, 1916, it is estimated that 86 per cent. of England's war expenditure has been defrayed from loans, so that only 14 per cent. has been raised by taxation. Both England and Germany, therefore, are relying on essentially the same methods of war finance.

In his second article Dr. Bonn analyzes the comparative cost of war loans to Germany, France, and England. He finds that a bond paying \$5 a year interest would have brought in Germany, in peace times, \$123.17, while in war time it brings only \$99. In France a bond that would have brought \$145.15 in peace times now brings only \$88, and in England a bond that would have realized \$147.32 in peace times is now represented by \$111.11. Thus the loss due to the war is \$34.17 in Germany, \$57.15 in France, and \$36.21 in England, and it would seem that Germany has made a better bargain than either England or France.

A further difference between German and English war finance is found in the fact that a large percentage of the Allied loans are not placed at all but are merely, as Dr. Bonn puts it, "hanging over the market." On the other hand, the German loans have been taken by the people. The first three were subscribed by 7,250,000 persons and the fourth loan by about 5,000,000 people. Of these 3,350,000 individual subscriptions were less than \$125 each, and more than 50 per cent. of the holders of the three loans are people who have invested less than \$250. A large part of the subscriptions (estimated at 20 per cent. of the first three loans) has come from savings-bank deposits.

Dr. Bonn describes the German war-loan banks which were organized to protect the Imperial Bank and others against the onrush of people who wished to borrow money on good securities that could not be sold because of the closing of the Stock Exchange. These war-loan banks issued certificates which are legal tender like the British currency notes. The issue was limited to \$750,000,000. The certificates are an obligation

of the government secured by the special assets against which they are issued and by the personal liability of the borrowing owner of the pledged security. Perishable goods are excluded as security. The lowest margin admitted is 25 per cent.

In his third article Dr. Bonn discusses in a very interesting way the effect of the blockade on German financial operations. According to his reasoning it has been a fortunate thing for Germany that the blockade has relieved her from the necessity of competing with England in foreign war finance. Much of the capital formerly employed in her foreign trade is now free and can be invested in national loans and all capital that is not needed ultimately goes into "the nation's great enterprise—the war."

So far as the blockade itself is concerned, Dr. Bonn admits that if Germany had been a small over-crowded country like England, or a country without industrial resources like the Southern Confederacy, her situation would now be dangerous, but the blockaded territory of the Central Powers covers an area of 1,200,000 square miles and the occupied hostile territory adds another 200,000 square miles, while the neutral states "accessible to the Central Powers for unhindered intercourse" cover another 460,000 square miles. Thus, the combined area from which the Central Powers can draw supplies is about two-thirds of the territory of the continental United States, and is inhabited by about 200,000,000 people. The problem thus becomes one of material resources rather than of finance. In Dr. Bonn's opinion the second year of the war has shown that the problem can be solved "by organization, by economy, by hard work, by discoveries and by a good deal of self-denial."

In the fourth and fifth articles of the series, Dr. Bonn discusses the currency situation in Germany. The country's circulating medium had to be increased because of the "war boom" in Germany's industrial life. Since gold payment had to be stopped in order to prevent gold exports, bank notes have circulated extensively. These notes are covered by a gold reserve of one-third.

The fall of the mark exchange, according to Dr. Bonn, is due not so much to an over-issue of bank notes as to an unfavorable trade balance. Dr. Bonn concludes that as the war has not destroyed Germany's material resources the nation will be equal to all burdens that are likely to fall on her. Her debts are home debts and are distributed in a democratic way among her people.

THE FATE OF POLAND IN THE BALANCE

ACLIMAX is rapidly being approached in the solution of the Polish question. The Austrian and the Russian governments are manifesting more than the usual amount of interest in the future of Poland. The German Chancellor von Bethmann Hollweg recently paid a visit to Vienna for the purpose of making some definite arrangements with the Austrian Government in regard to the promised restoration of Poland. In Russia the Polish question even caused a cabinet crisis. Foreign Minister Sergius Sazonoff clashed with Premier Sturmer on the question as to the kind of autonomy to be granted to Poland. The clash took place at the cabinet council held at the Czar's Field Headquarters on July 11. As a result of the council the resignation of Sazonoff was announced on July 23.

As M. Sazonoff was the staunchest Anglophile in the Russian Cabinet, his retirement in favor of Premier Sturmer, who assumed the portfolio of Foreign Minister, was interpreted as signifying a change in Russia's foreign policy. Public opinion in Russia and in the countries of her Allies grew alarmed to such a degree that the Premier was officially compelled to announce that no change in the foreign policy of the Czar's Government is contemplated. Meanwhile the Moscow newspaper *Russkoye Slovo* came in possession of authoritative information on what took place at the cabinet meeting in the Field Headquarters. The newspaper said:

After the prepared program (dealing with the questions of army supplies and transportation facilities) had been exhausted, two other subjects came up for discussion: the Polish and Jewish questions.

The Polish question provoked some very lively discussion. As we are informed, three separate projects were presented as solutions for the council's consideration. The first of these, the so-called Moscow plan, extends the widest possible autonomy to Poland. According to this project, a sharp geographical line would be drawn between Poland and Russia. This plan met with no response.

The second project was presented by the head of the cabinet, B. V. Sturmer. This project was based on the following outline: Poland's autonomy is defined by the term "provincial autonomy." No provisions for legislative institutions in Poland are made. The general laws of Poland's judicial and governmental life are to be legislated upon by the Imperial Duma and Council. Instead of governmental autonomy, it is promised to institute in Poland the most comprehensive local self-government. The project

of Premier Sturmer does not provide for the re-establishment of Poland along the lines of the Constitutional guarantees granted by Emperor Alexander I.

The third project was presented by the Minister for Foreign Affairs, S. D. Sazonoff. This project provides for Poland's autonomy in the full meaning of the term, and proposes its realization immediately after the Polish provinces have been liberated from the enemy. According to Sazonoff's plan, Poland forms an inseparable part of the Russian Empire and is wholly under the rule of the Russian Czar. In foreign politics Poland is to have no independence. The internal government, however, is to be molded in the form of the broadest autonomy, in the spirit of the Grand Duke Nikolai Nikolaievitch's manifesto.

As we are informed, S. D. Sazonoff's project was opposed by some members of the Cabinet, though the majority of Ministers approved of it. Final decision will be rendered in a few weeks, when a second Cabinet council will be held at the General Headquarters.

The difference between Sazonoff's and Sturmer's solutions is indeed very great. While the former planned to solve the Polish question on the basis of the promises made by the Grand Duke, Premier Goremykin, and himself, the latter merely suggested broad local self-government. In spite of the fact that Sazonoff was upheld by the majority, he was forced to retire. Relinquishing the post of Minister of Interior, Premier Sturmer had Alexei Khvostoff, a reactionary, appointed to that position. Another extreme reactionary, M. Makharoff, has been appointed to the post of Minister of Justice. Sazonoff's resignation, it is generally believed, coming in the nature of a demonstration, will prove of value to Poland, as Premier Sturmer will be unable in the face of aroused public opinion to cling to his original solution.

In addition to the Sazonoff incident, another important event helped to stir deeply the Russian nation. This was the disclosure of a secret circular on the Polish question prepared and sent out by the Ministry of Interior to the governors of all the provinces of the Empire. The circular sets forth a series of charges against the Poles, especially the Russian Poles, who are accused of conspiring with their Austrian brethren against the Russian Government with a view to the restoration of Poland under Teutonic hegemony. The Polish deputies in the Duma and Council issued a circular refuting and denouncing all the accusations as false and

malicious. How Russia views the government's circular is to be seen from the following editorial in the *Novoye Vremya*, a conservative paper:

Somewhere in the profound depths of the Department of Police a circular was originated containing a summary of many charges against the Poles. Without considering the substance of those charges in Austrophilism, which were categorically denied by the Polish Committee, we cannot help expressing our sorrow for the preparation of such a document at the present moment. Is it not one of the regular duties of the Germans to plant seeds of hatred between Russians and Poles before they withdraw from Poland? Is it not necessary for our authorities to remember the work of the secret agents engaged in sowing discord between Russia and Poland? Besides simple tact, delicacy is required in handling a country which has for two years served as a war theater, suffering infinitely. Should some of the facts in the circular

even be verified, is it possible to pronounce judgment on a whole people bent under the stick of the German officer and to present it in the form of a guide for the administrators in their forming of views on the Polish question? Is this the so-called foresight of statesmanship?

The radical press was much more violent in its denunciations of the government's underground method of influencing its officers' opinions on the Polish problem. Prince Eugene Troubetzkoy, one of Russia's foremost philosophers, came out with a powerful plea for a change in the Government's attitude toward the Poles. Other public men followed suit. The periodical literature is devoting columns to all the phases of the expected solution of the Polish question. Both Poles and Russians await with impatience the government's definite announcement of its new Polish policy.

PROVIDING FOR THE MAIMED AND CRIPPLED

MANY of the problems to be solved as a result of the great war can and must be left until its end, but that involved in making provision for the future of those who have suffered the loss of a limb requires more immediate action. This question is treated at some length in *Rassegna Nazionale* (Florence) by Signori Angelo Ragghianti and Salvatore Dalmazzoni.

The wonderful improvements that have been made in the construction of artificial limbs, rendering it possible to communicate to them a number of special movements by utilizing the motor power still existing in the stump left after amputation, have opened up spheres of activity for the maimed heretofore considered as permanently closed to them. By patient training on the part of competent instructors; and by the exercise of the necessary will power on the part of the pupils, an artificial arm can be made to do much of the work that the natural arm could do. More slowly, of course, and not quite as skilfully, but still sufficiently well to render the maimed man a useful member of society, one who can still have a share in the productive work of the nation.

The professional reëducation should be conducted earnestly and wisely, always following the general principle of keeping the man in touch with his native region and with the vocation he formerly pursued. Hence, all foolish sentimentality should be rigidly ban-

ished. Above all the men should not be taught any futile occupation, depending for its success only upon the pity and charity of those who may be induced to buy the things manufactured. It can be made possible for each of these victims to earn something in a proper and legitimate way, and he need not have recourse to one that would make him, in some sense, an object of charity.

Another important thing is to avoid teaching an undue number the few more easily acquired arts, such as typewriting, photography, telegraphy, telephony, etc. This would tend to disorganize the necessary distribution of labor in the land, with the consequent lowering of wages and the risk of unemployment.

By keeping to his old occupation or some occupation nearly related to it, the man will have more confidence in himself, will feel his necessary inferiority less, and a disturbance of the fields of employment will be avoided.

At the outset those entrusted with the difficult task of reëducation frequently find that they have to contend with a not unnatural timidity in their pupils, a distrust of themselves. This has been particularly noted among the peasants, who fear that the loss of an arm or a leg will prove an insurmountable obstacle to the varied muscular exertion required for agricultural labor. In all these cases, however, a capable instructor will be

able to impart the necessary courage and confidence.

The expense of supplying the artificial limbs should naturally be assumed by the state. In France, not long after the beginning of the war, the government took control of all the establishments for their manufacture; but it was found that when produced in quantities of a given type they failed to give the aid required. To be really effective each had to be made and adapted especially for each case, according to the exact form and size of the stumps to which it was to be adjusted. The quality and character of the mechanism must be in accord with the character of the occupation the wearer is to pursue; a bell-ringer, for instance, can get along with an artificial arm of much simpler

construction than that which would be needed by a tailor, a carpenter, a paper-hanger, or any other skilled workman.

The writers hold that the definitive legislation regarding the pensions to be given the maimed soldiers should clearly provide that their special training shall in no degree reduce these pensions, as some of the men fear. So much do they dread this, indeed, that they will often try to put off the beginning of their apprenticeship to the day succeeding that set for paying the pension. Here as elsewhere in Italy's pension legislation, the general rule should be that the amount accorded shall not be affected by the greater or lesser earnings of the recipients. Otherwise the pension would become an incentive to idleness.

WILLIAM HAYES WARD, EDITOR AND SCHOLAR

"THE Nestor of American Orientalists" was the title conferred by other Orientalists on Dr. William Hayes Ward, who died on August 28 at the age of eighty-one. Dr. Ward was also a classicist, a literary critic, a man of science, an educator in the broadest sense, a theologian, and a minister of the gospel. The London "Who's Who" specified archeology and botany as Dr. Ward's "recreations" and the list might have been extended to include a good many things that for most men mean hard work.

To the world at large Dr. Ward was known as an editor, and his service of nearly half a century on the *Independent*, of New York, gave him a wide acquaintance with men and women in every calling throughout the land. He was one of the last of a small group of versatile, clear-headed, broad-minded men who for many years guided the destinies of New York's daily and weekly press. Mr. Horace White, formerly of the *Evening Post*, who died on September 16, was another member of the group. Dr. Lyman Abbott, of the *Outlook*, is still in harness.

Before Dr. Ward joined the staff of the *Independent* he had held a professorship of Latin and Natural Science at Ripon College, Wisconsin, where his reputation for scholarship and learning long survived his transfer to an editorial desk.

The issue of the *Independent* for September 11 is a Ward number; on the cover appears (in color) a reproduction of the portrait of Dr. Ward, painted by Edwin B.

Child, and presented at last commencement to Amherst College, from which Dr. Ward had been graduated in 1856, and which he had served as trustee for a quarter of a century. The text pages contain tributes from Mr. Hamilton Holt and Mr. Edwin E. Slosson, co-workers with Dr. Ward on the *Independent*, and also from a number of his distinguished associates outside of the editorial rooms.

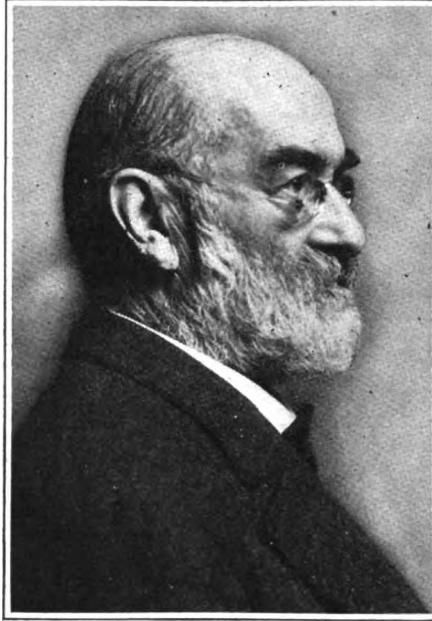
These comments by Mr. Holt will be appreciated by all members of the editorial brotherhood:

The editorial chair gave Dr. Ward the best possible scope for his genius. No man knew more things that were so. No man had deeper convictions on fundamental issues. No one could use words as tools better than he. And yet no one cared less for mere form or literary technic. He could always rise to a great occasion. When the Spanish War broke out, when McKinley was shot, when the doctors in Cuba let the mosquitoes inoculated with typhoid sting them, when the Japanese submarine went down and the heroic commander continued to write his diary until he was suffocated, his eloquence was unmatched by that of any other editor I read at the time. His pen was his personality. It was argumentative, laudatory, condemnatory, gentle or impassioned, as the occasion demanded.

One who only read his editorials might not have thought that he was really the gentlest of men. In the twenty years I worked with him I never knew him to lose his temper. All sorts of people came to him with their ambitions and needs, their triumphs and trials. He never turned them away. When I first joined the paper he said to me, "Never refuse to do a public service you are asked to do." He gave his time and his

name freely to all good causes. He gave his money to the poor.

I think Dr. Ward is the only man I have ever known who seemed to have no faults. He had foibles, to be sure. He was as disorderly as Horace Greeley and wrote nearly as illegibly. He once lost a pair of eyeglasses and found them two years later under some papers on his desk. He would stop in the midst of writing a leading editorial to read anything that happened to be laid upon his chair—the three chairs in his cubby-hole of an office always were piled to the toppling point with books and pamphlets. Dr. Ward believed that to waste time was a mortal sin. Until the last few years of his life he would run down eight flights of stairs rather than wait for the elevator. I should not like to have gone fishing with him. I cannot imagine him going on a vacation and lying on his back dreaming as the clouds floated by. He would more likely be working over cylinders at the Metropolitan Museum or preparing a sermon for next Sunday, or writing the platform of an Indian conference.



DR. WILLIAM HAYES WARD, 1835-1916

Something of the man's remarkable versatility and unusual range of interests is indicated by Mr. Slosson in the following paragraphs:

The door of Dr. Ward's office was open to all comers. And all comers came. College presidents and beggars, bishops and heretics, authors and bores—I see my pairs of categories are not mutually exclusive, but never mind. One mo-

ment he would be arguing excitedly with a rabbi over the translation of a Hebrew text, and the next conferring with a Chinese over the exclusion laws. He picked his protégés from all races and countries. . . .

Dr. Ward was alive at more points than any other man I ever saw. I have spoken of his delight at a find in poetry, but I have seen him equally enthusiastic over the discovery of helium and of the code of Hammurabi. Botany and astronomy were his special hobbies. Church federation and simplified spelling were his pets of reforms. Intolerance and pretentiousness were his chief detestations. His pen was sharpened to a dagger's point whenever he discussed a case of race prejudice or the spread of academic ritualism. Most of the reforms for which he labored and suffered obloquy in his younger days, the abolition of slavery, the rights of women, the liberalizing of theology, and the decline of sectarianism, were in large measure won before he died. But his face was always set toward the future and he was as much ahead of his time to the last as he was when he went out as a young man to make Kansas a free State. I often asked him to write up his memoirs, because he had known so many interesting people and he had been on the inside of so many important movements. But he always refused, for he was concerned with the people and problems of the present and the future, not those of the past. He had a great dislike of obituaries. That is why I have not written one of him.

THE FAMOUS PENITENTIARY-SANATORIUM AT WITZWIL

FORTY years ago the "Great Marsh" near Lake Neuchâtel in Switzerland was the same desolate swamp it had been for centuries. To-day a thousand hectares, owned by the Canton of Berne, forms a fertile and flourishing domain so well-ordered that it suggests an agricultural experiment station. And this modern miracle has been wrought by convict labor—but by convict labor operated under conditions wherein the physical and moral benefit of the prisoners themselves is the primary consideration of the authorities, and particularly of the domina-

ting genius of the place, Director Kellerhals, a man as zealously humane and scientifically compassionate as our own Thomas Mott Osborne.

So successful, both morally and financially, has been his administration that this "penitentiary-sanatorium" is now being widely copied in other Swiss communities, though at its inception it was bitterly opposed by the old régime. It is interesting to learn from a lengthy article in the *Bibliothèque Universelle*, describing the Witzwil experiment, that Mr. Kellerhals derived many of his

ideas from American sources. He has had, however, the advantage that the Witzwil penitentiary was reserved for primary offenders and other less hardened offenders.

In an interesting report on Witzwil, published in 1904, M. Kellerhals explained the superiority of agricultural development to cell-labor, and traced a picture of the future of the colony in the Great Marsh which events have justified. He opposed to the objections of the "old directors of prisons and professors of penal law, hostile to innovations which they had not initiated," the progress realized in the United States by the reformatories which had broken the yoke of routine in order to conform penitentiary organization to the necessities of practical life. He had no trouble in making his compatriots, proud of the success of Witzwil, partake of his opinion. In 1910 he condensed the substance of his observations and experiments in a report to the Swiss Penitentiary Congress at Sion. At the same time he took advantage of the eighth International Congress at Washington to personally observe the results obtained in the United States by the new methods.

Mr. Kellerhals also made a report upon the Washington Congress, wherein he expressed admiration for some of the American methods, though disapproving of others. He found a "misplaced luxury" in some prisons, and, strange to say, he did not approve of the night courts nor of the children's courts, though recognizing the reason for them in this country. He was, however, converted to the principle of the indeterminate sentence. He speaks warmly of the American idea, enunciated as far back as 1876 by Brockway, the founder of Elmira, that the prison should be a moral hospital, based on the principle of the moral and physical re-education of its prisoners, with punishment as a mere accessory.

Mr. Kellerhals is a strong advocate of making agriculture the principal occupation of the prisoners. Some of the representatives at the Swiss congress opposed this as unsuited to those cantons which are chiefly industrial rather than agricultural, since it is of prime importance that the discharged prisoner should find himself fitted to support himself by a profitable trade. It is pointed out, however, by the advocates of the prison-farm, that aside from the general physical and moral advantages to the prisoner of outdoor labor, there are multifarious occupations connected with the operation of an extensive farm, which give opportunity for training in various trades. An interesting paragraph reads as follows:

The colony should be less a place of detention than a station of prevention and the center of the efforts of the official guardians. It should

protect the freed convicts from being out of work; it should receive them whenever they knock at its gates. It should be their refuge and often provide sustenance for their families—to whom they could send supplies either in money or in kind—as has long been done at Witzwil with fruit, with that portion of their earnings not absorbed by their own maintenance. The colony would thus have permanent guests, some of whom would regain a taste for a regular life. We should have indulgence for these degraded unfortunates (first offenders, tramps, etc.), though without pity for hardened criminals, against whom society must protect itself by all available means.

The main arguments in favor of agricultural employment are thus stated:

The aim of punishment is the regeneration of the convict. In reality, it is much if he is not made worse. Sojourn in close confinement is debilitating. But most of the men have no fortune except their manual strength; it is important, therefore, that this should not be enfeebled. Work in the open air banishes evil thoughts and turns the minds of the prisoners into the right path. The work is distributed according to individual capacity. . . . The prisoner is conscious of the result of his labors. He is a member of the collectivity; he sees the sowing and the harvesting, the growth of domestic animals. He uses the tool he himself has fashioned. He observes that eager labor from morning till night is not a punishment, but that the director and his staff give themselves to it with more ardor than the prisoners. The contact with nature produces its beneficent influence. . . . It often happens that the man leaves the penitentiary with body hardened and spirit softened and with a better comprehension of life and of his duties. The prison has then achieved its aim—physical and moral amendment. . . . Another advantage should be emphasized: the work of the prisoners is utilized rationally, without competing with that of free laborers. An accessory condition . . . is that the execution of the sentence is without cost to the State.

The material success which Witzwil owes to these ideas is considerable. The moral results are not so easily estimated. . . . The relations which Witzwil sustains, however, with a number of its former residents prove that its lessons have not been lost.

Another social advantage urged is that industrial labor in the cells not only competes with that of free workingmen, but tends to form a class of mediocre workers to swell the proletariat of the cities, and incidentally the army of vagabonds and "repeaters," whereas the Witzwil régime increases the number of able farm-hands, gardeners, dairymen, etc., of whom Switzerland is increasingly in need—an argument which applies with much force to conditions in America likewise.

The latter part of this valuable article concerns the "refuges" erected to assist discharged prisoners in obtaining positions in which to support themselves by honest labor.

THE ENGLISH CHANNEL TUNNEL IN A NEW LIGHT

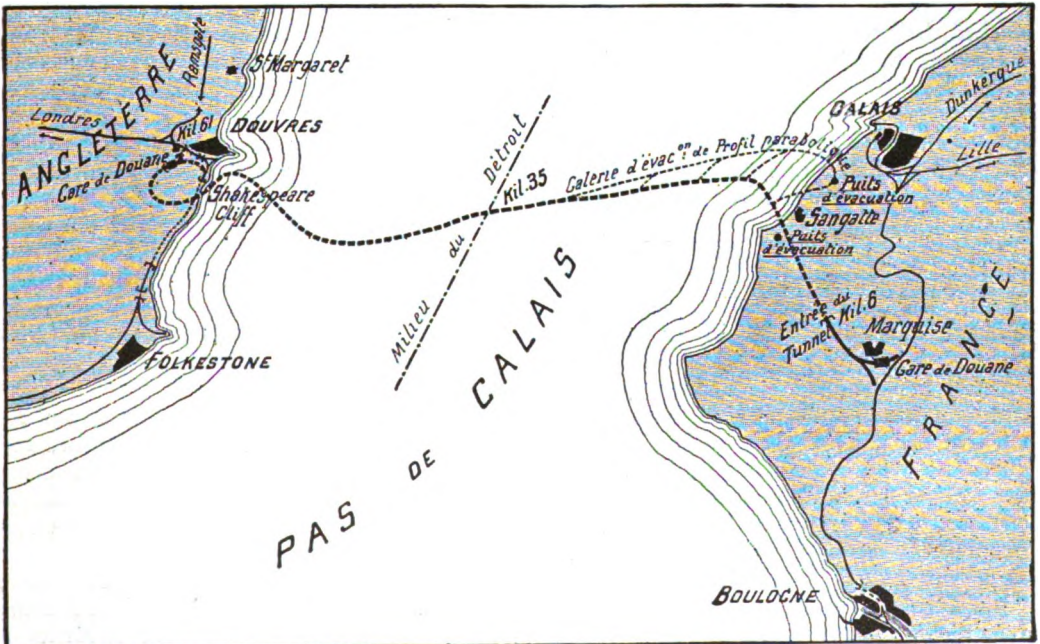
BOTH military and popular sentiment in Great Britain has, in the past, predominantly antagonized the perennial project of a tunnel connecting that country with France. Britain took comfort in her insularity, not only as a safeguard against foreign aggression, but also, and perhaps especially, as a token of British reserve and exclusiveness. The great war, which has wrought so many other changes, has demonstrated that, tunnel or no tunnel, Great Britain can no longer be insular. This is the age of the Zeppelin and the aeroplane, which are blithely indifferent to surface geography. It is likewise the age of the submarine, which passes nonchalantly through a cordon of protecting warships.

The irony of fate willed that, when the present war broke out, the lack of a tunnel under the channel was most bitterly regretted by that very element of British officialdom which has been chiefly responsible for the non-realization of the project; namely, the military authorities. A French writer, P. de Lannoy, points out in a recent number of *La Nature* how extremely valuable this means of communication would have been at the time of mobilization, and subsequently. Such a tunnel as has been con-

templated in recent years, provided with a double-track railway, would have easily ensured the transportation of troops at the rate of an army corps a day, with complete equipment and supplies. No fear of submarines and airships; no occasion to immobilize a large contingent of the navy for protecting transports; no monopolization of seaports, to the detriment of commerce. The whole course of the war might have been different had such a tunnel existed.

M. de Lannoy's remarks on the tunnel project acquire timely interest from the fact that the British Government, as well as British public opinion, appears to be at last fully converted to the scheme. The secretary of H. M. Office of Works announced last May that the undertaking would not be postponed much longer, and the matter has since been taken up in Parliament.

Now that the project is near to realization, it is of interest to review its vicissitudes. M. de Lannoy declares that the earlier plans, including that of Mathieu, which was warmly espoused by Napoleon, would have proved impracticable, even if they had found the necessary public support. The engineering of the first half of the nineteenth century was not able to cope with the difficulties of



THE CHANNEL TUNNEL SCHEME IN ITS LATEST FORM

such a task. The first feasible project appears to have been that of Gamond, elaborated between 1834 and 1866, and favorably regarded by Napoleon III and Queen Victoria. This provided for an artificial island in the middle of the channel, at which the tunnel was to rise above sea level, and which was to afford connection with steamers. After 1869 several companies were formed to make preliminary surveys and explorations, and all the technical problems were solved. In the '80's, however, the tide of British opposition, on military and sentimental grounds, set in, and the project slumbered until 1913, when it experienced a vigorous revival. Finally, the events of the past two years have made the tunnel question a burning one.

The French author adduces some striking figures to show how serious a barrier the English Channel has been to intercourse between England and the Continent. In 1911, 2,808,000 persons passed between Germany and France. In the same year there were 4,364,500 travelers between France and Bel-

gium-Holland. Yet in 1910 only a million persons crossed the channel, bound for France or Great Britain. The obstructive effect of the channel is brought out in another way by the statement that every inhabitant of England performs, on an average, thirty railway journeys per annum in his own country, yet only one Englishman in thirty crosses the channel each year.

The writer sees an analogous effect in the slower growth of commerce between France and England than between France and Germany; notwithstanding the fact that in the former case the two countries are singularly well fitted to supply each other's wants, since their productions are complementary to a remarkable degree.

The cost of the tunnel is estimated at \$80,000,000, a sum that would be readily subscribed in England, France, and Belgium. One of its effects would be to diminish by two hours the length of the journey from London to Paris; and another would be to banish the bugbear of seasickness now incidental to that journey.

ECHOES OF THE TRENCHES

WHEN the lull came after the terrific battle of the Marne, the men in the trenches had opportunity to take stock of their surroundings and of themselves, and they began to grumble. The grumbings reached their officers, who quickly cast about for means to take the minds of their men from "the shells, the mud and the Germans." They suggested naming the trenches, which amused the rank and file for the time. Then they tried entertainments, even theatrical burlesques, but their effect was only temporary.

One day—it was the 28th of November, 1914, to be exact—Brigadier-General Noddaillac was discussing the situation with Colonel Paty du Clam, of Dreyfus trial fame, who was in command of the 17th territorials in Champagne. Suddenly the general suggested publishing a magazine "in the trenches and for the trenches." Colonel du Clam was enthusiastic. "I know just the man to edit it!" he declared, and forthwith set out in search of Paul Reboux, former literary critic of the *Journal* and famed as a wit. Reboux fell in with the idea. "We'll call it *L'Echo de Tranchées*," he said to his colonel, and standing a packing-box on its end, sought out a candle, pen, ink,

and paper, and began to write. Throughout the night he wrote, and in the morning he had the matter for four pages.

As his duty permitted during the day, he designed and lettered his title and copied his writing on wax stencil paper. That night the first number of *L'Echo des Tranchées* was mimeographed in the headquarters of the surgeon-major. A priest volunteered to distribute the magazine in the trenches and, with the edition strapped to his back, pedaled his bicycle to the front. The men in the trenches received the sheet with great glee—and forgot their troubles. Other regiments took up the idea, till now there are a score or more of "trench magazines." These are described in an entertaining article contributed by Gelett Burgess to the *September Century*.

Chief among these publications are *Le Poilu*, published at Chalons-sur-Marne, and *Le Diable au Cou*, issued by the Chasseurs Alpines—the Blue Beirbs they are called in the field—each of which has a circulation of more than 18,000.

Others are *L'Echo de L'Argonne*, *L'Echo des Boyaux*, *L'Echo des Marmites*, *L'Echo des Guionnes*, *Le Canard Poilu*, with its illustrated supplement, *La Lapin à Plumes*, *La*

Mouchoir, *L'Echo des Gourbis*, and *La Voix du 75*. This last, *La Voix du 75*, is the smallest of them all, its four pages being only five by three inches; but it has the distinction of being hectographed within twenty-five metres from the front, and its editor apologizes for the imperfection of the copies, "because the earth, shaken by shells, keeps dropping into the ink and the machine." As the news of the magazines spread, men famous in the world of art and letters, Henri de Régnier, Alfred Capus, Gabriel Hanotaux, Brioux, Theodore Botrel, Paul Hervieu, Marcel Tinayre and Edmond Rostand, send contributions. Paul Deschanel, president of The Chamber of Deputies, wrote words of cheer, and even the president of the Republic himself, Raymond Poincaré, sent greetings to the men in the trenches.

Some of the editorial sanctums are in the trenches, but most are in the headquarters of the surgical camps, as these are more protected.

Oftentimes the editors "put down their pens to take up their guns," but many commanders, appreciating the importance of keeping the *poilus* in good spirits, have relieved the editors of all other duties.

One of the magazines is printed in Paris, but the others are hectographed, mimeographed or cyclostyled near the trenches.

Being issued solely to amuse the *poilus*, the jokes are broad, virile and lively—strong jokes for strong men. Of course the Kaiser, the Kronprinz and Kultur furnish lively material. *Le Mouchoir* prints nothing but puns, but the never-failing source of delight is found in the *marraines* and *permissionnaires*.

When it was found that thousands of the soldiers received neither letters nor presents, it was suggested in Paris that the French women, of all ages and circumstances, "adopt" one or more *poilus* and pledge themselves to write and send presents to them every so often. The idea sprang into instant favor—and the *poilus* christened these women *marraines*.

Those of the *poilus* granted furloughs who



From the Century Magazine

SOME OF THE LEADING "TRENCH MAGAZINES"

have *marraines* are called *permissionnaires*—and, as can be imagined, the meetings between *marraines* and *permissionnaires* are always interesting, and many are the romances which have sprung from them.

L'Echo des Gourbis has even parodied the marriage certificate by a *Certificat de Marraine*. Poetry is, of course, rampant, but the hero most sung of is not the soldier brave, not the fearless aviator, but the company cook, who, heedless of shot or shell, serves regularly the coffee and the "monkey." These magazines printed in black, blue and violet ink receive official recognition in the *Bulletin des Armées de la République*, the official paper issued every Wednesday, with a supplement on Saturday, under the supervision of the Minister of War. The best articles, jokes and drawings of the trench magazines are reproduced and thus receive tribute to the service they are performing for the Republic.

President Poincaré, valuing this spirit in the trench magazines, wrote:

This gaiety, which you keep even in the face of danger, is one of the most charming forms of the French spirit. Every time I find myself among you, your heroism seems the greater because of your joyous spontaneity and freedom from care. May the "echo of the trenches" be heard not only to the extremes of France, but in every part of the world!

WHY DOES ART FLOURISH IN TIME OF WAR?

IN Milan alone there were no less than nine exhibitions of art last spring. A recent number of the Milan review, *Pagine d'Arte*, announces also similar exhibitions all over Italy—in Bologna, Brescia, Florence, Leghorn, Cremona, Pesaro, Palermo, etc. Moreover, the pictures are not only exhibited, but the sales surpass those in time of peace. The review mentioned says apropos of these facts:

Nine exhibitions of art in two months is a splendid sign of national vigor. Though the exhibits which have so abounded ever since the beginning of the war have benevolence as their object, they are none the less a sign of the maintenance of public tranquillity, of hearty confidence, in the midst of trying and laborious crises. They indicate also easy circumstances economically, since they are much frequented, and since more pictures are sold than has ever been the case in time of peace.

Commenting on this statement the *Bibliothèque Universelle* (Lausanne) remarks:

The fact is singular and lends itself to divers interpretations. Some persons may surmise that the abundant sales are dependent merely upon the low prices. The class of artists is incontrovertibly that which found itself during the early period of the war in the most precarious situation. For a year there were no sales. Hence the necessity of presentation to the public under more favorable conditions than ever—conditions by which, naturally, the amateur, the monopolist,

and the *bourgeois*, having a certain degree of taste or of *snobisme*, were able to profit.

But this is not a complete explanation. It should be noted that in the majority of the works exhibited and sold the horror and wretchedness of the present time were not reflected.

The heavens are seen still decked in blue and rose, the waves are still limpid, the meadows flowery, the houses unruined and cheerful. Here is the woman in all her delicate grace and engaging charm, the man in all his tranquil strength. . . . In short, we have the peace and serenity of the past reaffirmed and giving the lie to the terrible error conjured up in our minds by the lengthy war—the error of almost believing that every smile of men or of things has disappeared forever.

These bits of azure and green are not solely a consoling memory, but also an act of faith. Yes, the germ of joy still lives; the soul of the springtime still throbs in the meadows mangled by the machine-gun and gorged with blood. The youth of mankind will be resuscitated in yet other strong and noble bodies. . . . And if a few square inches of canvas can hold colors other than the atrocious red and funereal black of this unhappy hour, if a bit of marble can represent to us a beautiful, gay countenance, a serene and lovely bosom, we hasten to admire and to purchase the picture of the statue.

Has it ever before been so often repeated by word of mouth or of pen that art is the great consolatrice of our worst sufferings? Even like religious faith, and perhaps still better; for the effect of faith in terrible hours is exerted rather in the direction of resignation, while art procures for us a wholesome forgetfulness whence our forces issue gifted with more resistance and more enthusiasm.

SOME REMINISCENCES OF MOUNET-SULLY'S YOUTH

THE famous French tragedian, Mounet-Sully, whose recent death was a distinct loss to the *Comédie Française*, had lately been engaged in writing his memoirs, and these are now running in the well-known illustrated magazine, *Je Sais Tout* (Paris). Among much that is of interest, chiefly to French readers, we find certain episodes that are of universal appeal, as indicating the influences affecting the development of the artist.

Mounet-Sully was not one of those "children of the theater" whose birth and early environment seem to predestine their later careers. Moreover, his mother, one of those admirable women and devoted parents to

whom great men are so often indebted for their qualities, looked with disfavor upon the histrionic profession for her son. His genius, therefore, had to find its own peculiar path.

When he was about fourteen years old it chanced that a charitable entertainment was organized for the benefit of the poor in the little town of Bergerac where he resided. Naturally everybody in the village and its environs was present. Among the spectators was the distinguished actor Ballande, who resided in a small château in the neighborhood. The organizers of the fête urged him to take part, and he responded by reciting certain stanzas from *Polyeucte*. The effect

on the young Mounet—it was later that he called himself Mounet-Sully—was overwhelming. He thus describes it in his memoirs:

I was dazzled. For me this was the Revelation. A revelation wherewith was mingled a sort of bewilderment. I had not suspected the existence of tragic verse. It was now discovered to me. Its splendor took irresistible possession of me, though I was not able to give a reason for it; it made conquest of the very depths of my soul. For the first time I became conscious of cadence and rhythm.

I may say that from that very hour my vocation was determined. But I cannot better define the quality of that first impression than by repeating that it was compounded of stupefaction, bewilderment, and bedazzlement. . . . I was then but a child, and it was but slowly that there was sketched within me the road which should lead to Art. I remained at Bergerac until my twenty-sixth year, bearing within me the dream, obscure at first, but little by little gaining in growth, becoming absorbing and tyrannical, of devoting myself to Tragedy.

Meanwhile, he tells us, he dallied with various arts. He painted, modeled, essayed musical composition, while his mother urged upon him first the clerical, and on his refusal of that, the legal profession. But finally "the sainted woman" of whom, he tells us, the memory was the most precious treasure of his life, gave him her benediction,

if not her approval, on his departure for Paris to seek entrance in the *Conservatoire*.



MOUNET-SULLY AT TWENTY-FIVE

MR. SOTHERN'S VIEWS OF MOVING-PICTURE ACTING

THAT Mr. E. H. Sothern is America's foremost living actor, is a statement often made and seldom, if ever, contradicted. It was a notable day for the motion-picture industry, therefore, when he consented to appear before the camera in several plays, the first of which is now being shown on the screen.

In the September *Craftsman*, Mr. Sothern tells some of the difficulties which he encountered in changing from the spoken drama to the motion picture.

All of his life had been spent on the stage, and he had grown accustomed to depend not only upon the gesture, the voice, and the expression, but also upon the living audience. In "acting for the movies," however, the voice and the audience are missing, while the gesture is limited and the expression is exaggerated. We quote Mr. Sothern:

with even our gestures limited, with our space for moving about cut to the narrowest allowance. If we attempt to express some sudden violent emotion with a wide gesture we are told quickly that we are out of the picture; if we stride across the stage to express irritation, annoyance, we are out of the picture; if we glance away from the people with whom we are acting our glance is out of the picture. In fact, the first thing to learn in acting in the "movies" is to keep in the picture. Everything is limited for the actor except his facial expression, and that must be exaggerated beyond anything he has ever permitted himself on the legitimate stage. Frequently, every variety of emotion—anger, rage, pride, joy, sorrow—must be given out through the reel to the canvas and then to an audience solely by the varying expression of the eyes and the mouth. Every expression must be intensified in moving pictures, because through the expression alone, most rapidly presented, will the people who have nothing to do with your personality, your voice, your gesture, receive an impression of the picture you are trying to convey.

Still another difficulty was the way in which scenes were photographed without re-

We do our acting before the moving camera



MR. SOTHERN IN A MOVING-PICTURE STUDIO. AN OFF MOMENT BETWEEN SCENES

gard to order, depriving the actor of the opportunity of "working up" to his scene.

In the play written for the legitimate stage usually an actor works up through his first and second act to the final culmination of emotional expression in the third. I shall always remember my bewilderment when I discovered one day that I was being called upon to pose my third act first of all because that scenery was ready and the lights were placed so that that particular part of the room could be best photographed. And it may be that in one moving play an actor will be photographed in various parts of a building or various parts of a town or various parts of a country, according as the director desires to make a particular play intensely and vividly realistic, so that there is no opportunity for putting yourself in a psychological state and living your part from hour to hour, or becoming the actual man you portray.

On the stage the actor persuades his audi-

ence as to the reality of his presentation; but a moving-picture actor never tries to feel any emotion, only to help the audience to feel it.

You stand in the corner of an immense room where three or four other plays are going on; you inhabit only a narrow strip of a corner where your own play is going on. Probably you have only the illusion of scenery on two sides of you. At first you even hear the stage directions given to the other actors and lights are going up and down all about you and people are passing everywhere. Occasionally, to your astonishment, at least during rehearsal, they walk through your "set," and by chance the new hand may delay in the "set" when the reel starts so that you can no more count upon any outside

illusion to help you with the development of your creation than you could if you were walking down Broadway. Your entire picture must come mechanically from your brain; you cannot acquire any inspiration, any stimulus.

A graceful tribute is paid by Mr. Sothern to the director of a photo-play, whom he calls the "movie" schoolmaster. "He knows the expression that will carry on the canvas, he knows the look that the audience will answer. In other words, he knows the machine and the audience, and he knows how to make the actor a satisfactory connecting link."

Mr. Sothern expresses great regret that he is not able to present Shakespeare before the camera; but the impossibility of copy-righting such plays renders the financial risk so great that the film company is unwilling as yet to undertake the production.

IRON MONEY IN GERMANY

THE very great scarcity in Germany of nickel and copper, those metals so useful for military purposes, has led to their withdrawal from monetary circulation. The small change required for business is now made of iron, whose tendency to rust is overcome by applying a coating of zinc. The first issue of iron money was \$2,000,000, and its success led to the order for a new issue of \$4,000,000.

The *Elektrotechnisch Zeitschrift* (Berlin) gives details of the manufacture.

The use of iron, or rather, of steel, was possible

only on condition that the metal should be protected from rust by a process at once efficacious and economical. Among the many methods tested, the one selected was Sherardisation, so called from the name of the inventor, Sherard D. Cowper Coles.

This, which is both durable and cheap, consists in placing the articles to be treated, in this case disks of steel not yet stamped, inside a receptacle filled with powdered zinc. The whole is then heated and kept for a certain length of time at a temperature slightly lower than that of the fusion of zinc. A protective alloy is thus formed on the surface of the disk sufficiently tenacious to undergo stamping without cracking and very resistant to rust.

THE JEW AND THE WAR

AMERICAN Jewry has by force of circumstances been led to become the protector and defender of the war-torn Jewry of Europe. The spokesmen of the American Jews have been numerous and powerful, but practically no voice from the Polish-Russian Jewry, a body of 8,000,000 people, has reached the world's attention. The following remarkable utterance of Nahum Sokolow, made in the course of an interview with the London correspondent of the *Jewish Criterion*, Pittsburgh, fills that gap. M. Sokolow is the foremost living Hebrew publicist. He has been the editor of the *Hazeftirah*, a daily published in Warsaw, for more than thirty years, and is an executive member of the international Zionist organization. No man of his race could represent the Russian and Polish Jews with greater authority, more extensive knowledge, or broader vision. He said:

It is clear that this war will not usher in the millennium; nor are we to expect a definite triumph of justice at the end, for absolute justice for the various nationalities engaged in the conflict is impossible. To secure such an ideal state of justice would mean the overturning of our whole social fabric. Nationality does not correspond with territory. Many nations are a mixture of nationalities. And to secure such an equal balance among the nations, a transference of nationalities would be necessary. But justice is an abstract ideal, a pure political chimera, and it cannot be easily applied to the different nationalities at this stage of civilization. What is just for one is unjust for another.

Nationalistic views to-day have become like religion. Only one side is seen, and to the interested observers, that side, of course, must be right. These views are intermixed with various interests and motives, and only the nationalistic ego predominates. In the striving for national defense, the national soul only speaks, and not the general humanitarian soul.

However, when peace will be concluded, a decrease in armaments is bound to follow (as it is not humanly possible for Europe to bear all these burdens indefinitely). And the Jewish problem, which is continually causing irritation, disharmony, conflicts within and among the nations—within the nations through persecution and among the nations through emigration—should be made the subject of consideration at the coming conference of nations.

The Jewish people are more entitled now to a proper consideration of their problem than at the time of the French Revolution, or at '48, or at any other epoch in history, when it was decided to confer rights upon them out of the mere fact that they were human beings. This is the first time in their history that they are called upon to make so many sacrifices. Altogether, they have given over 700,000 soldiers to the various belligerents, quite an army in itself. In fact, I should say, that in point of

numbers and quality it is equal to that of a small ally. . . .

As to national rights in transferred territories, where Jews live in large masses, I must say that a vague "paper" emancipation of rights is really not sufficient in those parts where they meet with much hostility from their surroundings. The "rights" have to be guaranteed. A special formula will have to be drawn up to safeguard not only their economic rights, but what is more important still, their cultural individuality. The Jews of Poland and Galicia should not be compared with the Jews in any western European country. The Jews in those parts are too numerous, too distinctive, too typical, have too much of their own ancient tradition, going back to times immemorial, are too psychologically unique to be absorbed by a not-overwhelming majority, which is also not very superior to them in culture, ability and energy.

It is obvious that the Jews in Poland, as well as in any other country, will undoubtedly be devoted to the interests and welfare of that country, as they will also be loyal to the new government. So they have to be. The conditioning circumstances will make them so. But their rights have not to be bought at the price of the denial of their individuality. . . . They should not be hampered in living their own life, in realizing their national ego. I think that the *modus vivendi* of Jews and Poles would be much easier this way than any other way.

If the Poles are anxious that the Jews should speak Polish, let them be sure that in twenty years of Polish autonomy or independence the Jews would speak such a wonderful Polish that many Poles would be really jealous of it. I should like to think that they should speak as good a Hebrew as they would Polish. For me the ideal type of a Polish Jew is the type depicted by that great Polish novelist, Joseph Krazowski, in his remarkable tale "The Jew." In it he draws a Jew who is at the same time an enthusiastic Hebrew and a devoted adherent to the Polish patriotic cause. My friends and I have always been in great sympathy with the Polish national cause, not in spite of, but because of our Jewish nationalistic feelings. . . .

M. Sokolow then spoke gratefully of the part the American Jews have played in aiding their suffering European brethren. He expressed his hope that the American press and the American public will see to it that at the coming Peace Conference justice be done to the Jewish people. The European Jews, he said, will never forget the assistance given to the Palestinian settlers by that "great-spirited American, Mr. Morgenthau." If the Jewish problem is to be solved satisfactorily at the end of the Great War, the Jewish claims to Palestine should not be ignored. "For what we have in Palestine does not belong to one group of Jews, but to the whole Jewish nation. This is the nucleus of a great Jewish future."

ITALIAN OBJECTIONS TO ALCOHOL

SO general has been the idea that Italy offered an example of the comparative harmlessness of the moderate consumption of alcoholic beverages that many will be surprised at the views expressed by Signor Leonardo Bianchi, member of the Italian Chamber of Deputies, in *Nuova Antologia* (Rome). The writer estimates the average annual value of the wine produced in Italy during the five-year period 1909-1913 at nearly \$300,000,000 annually, and he notes that five-sixths of this wine product was consumed in the home country. This is in marked contrast with France, where a considerable part of the wine produced is exported to foreign lands.

Regarding the quantity of alcohol absorbed in a day by many Italians, Signor Bianchi says:

From an investigation begun two years ago in a private clinic by interrogating the patients, it was found that much greater quantities of wine were consumed than could be properly oxidated in the system, the result being serious injury to health by slow intoxication. Many of those who were questioned declared that it was usual for them to drink a bottle of wine at each of their two repasts, although this quantity did not, in most cases, produce any symptoms of inebriety, because they were so thoroughly habituated to the use of wine.

Now, two bottles contain on an average from one and a half to two liters of wine, which, estimating the alcoholic contents at 12 per cent, gives from 150 to 200 grams of alcohol as the usual daily quantity, not taking account of the greater amount of wine commonly consumed on festival days. Such a quantity of alcohol, especially for those who do not perform hard work, is certainly toxic, for according to the most thorough researches, it cannot be oxidated and hence is valueless as an aliment, circulating in the blood and exercising a deleterious influence upon the nervous centers and the entire economy of the organism.

As to the hygienic effects of alcohol the writer proceeds to cite a number of somewhat divergent opinions; but, whatever may be asserted as to occasional or temporary beneficial results upon the physical organism, he considers that we have ample proof of the injurious effect it exercises upon the psychic functions. Instead of increasing mental vigor, alcohol depresses it, and finally paralyzes it, in spite of the apparent but deceptive stimulation its use produces at the outset.

That Italians more rarely exhibit the symptoms of acute alcoholism than do those of other nationalities is, in this writer's view, a result of the century-old habituation of

the race to the use of alcoholic beverages, from Roman times downward. In his opinion, however, this toleration of alcohol has been bought at the expense of a deterioration of the race in the chief wine-growing regions.

While acute alcoholism is comparatively rare, chronic alcoholism, the slow intoxication induced by the contigued absorption of alcohol, is only too common, diminishing the resistance of the organism to fatigue, reducing the power of consecutive action, and, through the constant irritation of the nerve-centers, developing a tendency to litigiousness.

An important economic aspect of the question has been rendered especially prominent in the course of the war. While the annual value of the wine consumed in Italy may be put at \$250,000,000, that country does not produce enough grain to supply its needs, and it has been necessary to import grain from abroad to the value of from \$60,000,000 to \$100,000,000 annually.

This condition was rendered more acute than usual last year because of a poor harvest and by the exceedingly heavy freight charges on imports. If now a part of the ground and the labor at present devoted to viniculture were given to the cultivation of grain, Italy would be the gainer by securing a true food product, instead of a mere stimulant, and by expending at home the sum she is now obliged to send abroad in order to supplement her wheat supply, which is now insufficient for the needs of her people.

At least no encouragement should be accorded to an extension of viniculture, nor should those vines that have been destroyed by phylloxera be replaced. Moreover, every effort should be made to produce a type of vine containing a low percentage of alcohol, and the exportation of Italian wines should be fostered in every way. In Russia, England, and America they would be at present valuable substitutes for the stronger alcoholic beverages. The export of raisins should also be encouraged to a great extent. Energetic action is necessary; for a country which is obliged to have recourse to foreign lands for bread, meat, skins, wool, and so many other indispensable things, while continuing to be an essentially agricultural country, and which is obliged to consume its own wine product, although this possesses but little value for its health and well-being, can never be a prosperous country.

THE POPULATION OF THE ARGENTINE

IN spite of the widespread interest recently aroused in our South American neighbors, it is probable that most of us have a rather vague idea as regards the racial balance in the various countries between the original inhabitants and the new and old immigrants who have partly supplanted them and partly absorbed them.

The question is answered illuminatingly for the Argentine by Mr. José Ingenieros, of Buenos Aires, in the *Revista de Filosofía*. He points out, to begin with, that the substitution of white for native colored races has proceeded much more rapidly in the temperate zones of the American continent than in tropical America (from Mexico to Bolivia). Moreover there are marked differences in the method of adaptation of the incoming races in the different countries. In the north there has been little intermingling with the native population, while in the south great masses of half-breeds have retarded the diffusion of the white races.

European immigration in America can be expressed in simple terms: two white races, one English, the other Iberian, found themselves in contact with great populations of natives, divided into tribes more or less grouped in definite territories. In political and military language this is called conquest; in natural language it was then a struggle between autochthonous and immigrant races for the occupation of American soil. And this struggle had for a result: (1) The substitution in the temperate zones of the two Americas of European white races for uncivilized indigenous races of color; (2) The adaptation of the European races to the New World with variations of influences. This substitution had three consequences: (1) The inequality of civilization of the native races; (2) The inequality of civilization of the conquering white races; (3) The inequality of the physical milieu to which adaptation was required.

After this clear-cut introduction Mr. Ingenieros observes that in South America the racial evolution was of similar character in the Argentine Republic, in Uruguay, in Chile and in the southern part of Brazil. Taking the first-named as a type he finds four elements in the population of Argentine territory: (1) Immigrant Europeans, white in Buenos Aires and the other cities, and for the most part Spanish. (2) The white inhabitants of the cities, descendants of Spaniards and known as Euro-Argentines. These are essentially European in manners and civilization. (3) The half-breed populations of the country, who were incorporated into a nation after political

emancipation. These are the Hispano-native half-breeds. (4) The indigenous populations in regions where there has been no European installation, and which are not incorporated in the Argentine nation. These are the Indians.

An important ethnic detail is that, while the Anglo-Americans have formed a single race without intermingling with the natives, there have been formed on the Ibero-American trunk two branches: (1) A small number of white creoles inhabiting the cities. (2) A more considerable quantity of creoles of the suburbs and country places. The first have prepared the sociologic formation of the Argentine nationality and assured its political independence, while the second are barbarians as compared with the highly civilized members of the first branch. These two groups are known as Argentines and Gauchos.

The Euro-Argentines are the only ones who have achieved successful revolution and independence. They have done this by bringing into the Republic the political and economic innovations of European countries, the ideas of the encyclopedists and the physiocrats, and the currents of democracy. They were the promoters of the Argentine nationality. This was their exclusive work; they conceived and realized the idea of it. The Hispano natives remain aloof from the social and national life. They furnish the principal contingent of the military forces which fought against the Spanish at first and later participated in the civil war. They represent in their ensemble Gaucho and Hispano-American society essentially distinct from Argentine society.

As for the autochthonous element, it remains absolutely apart from the new Argentine nationality, with no thought of independence, and does not intervene in civil or national wars except in the form of bands enrolled by the peninsular whites or American whites, who consider themselves their superiors.

There remains the negro race, which is of minor importance in temperate South America, and is moreover almost extinguished by the extensive interbreeding.

The Hispano-natives did not immediately adapt themselves to the political and social innovations inaugurated by the Euro-Argentine minority which created the new nationality under the inspiration of democratic doctrines. There was a reactionary movement, under certain chiefs of party, like Rosas, who wished feudal institutions to be dominant, and for a score of years sought to arrogate supremacy to the Gaucho element and secure a Hispano-colonial restoration.

To-day, however, the author declares, the Argentine nation is definitely consolidated under the action of social forces.

A SOUTH AMERICAN VIEW OF "ANGLO-LATIN" PSYCHOLOGY

IT is usually assumed that the Latin races are temperamentally and psychologically alike, and are pretty sharply differentiated in these respects from the Anglo-Teutonic races. It is somewhat surprising, therefore, to find a well-known South American litterateur taking the position that there is an Anglo-Latin ideal markedly distinct from, and repugnant to, the Germanic ideal. Writing in *Letras*, published at Asuncion, Paraguay, Dr. Baez observes:

The Anglo-Latin races, which have been and are always the principal creators of modern civilization, are the peoples which have been most profoundly and most perfectly civilized by their large culture in civic, moral, and esthetic matters; the expression of this ennoblement of the species has been the system of dualism in philosophy, and of liberalism in politics—the doctrines which are most compatible with human dignity. Their great political and social revolutions have had no other end than to affirm the autonomy of the will, that is, moral liberty, the inviolability of the human individual, and the democratic régime. And even as their sensibility and their manners have been humanized, so have

their political institutions diverged from militarism and autocracy of the state and looked above all to the protection of individual rights.

The Anglo-Latin races form a completely homogeneous group, not so much in their ethnic composition as in their mental conformation, *i. e.*, by the resemblance of their active intellectual and moral qualities. Deeply rooted in the consciousness of these nations, in fact, are the noblest sentiments of humanity and the most generous ideas. This is why they have conceived the system of the commonalty of law, founded on the dogmas of the equality of states and of international justice, dogmas which condemn violence with respect to weak nations and their absorption by stronger ones. This is the pacifist and humanitarian ideal of the Anglo-Latin nations.

In conclusion Dr. Baez finds that the Germanic military empires are attached to the ideals of former ages, and that German thinkers have not been able to rid themselves of an oriental pantheism in philosophy and science, and of a Roman Cæsarism in politics—two systems which eventually involve the omnipotence of the state and the annihilation of the liberty of races and of individuals.

BRAZILIAN HOSTILITY TO THE MONROE DOCTRINE

THAT the Monroe Doctrine, as promulgated by American statesmen, is unwelcome and humiliating to Brazilians and Argentinians is the conclusion reached by Professor Oliveira Lima, of the Brazil Academy. In an article contributed to the *Revista do Brazil* (May, 1916), he examines the conditions now existing between the nations of North and South America.

"All who have the good fortune to visit the great land of real-estate boomers and intense political activities, calling itself the United States of America, should see Niagara Falls and try to form a calm opinion of the Monroe Doctrine." With which kind suggestion the article immediately proceeds to point out certain inconsistencies between the Monroe Doctrine, as enunciated by President Monroe, and the political policies of the United States of to-day:

The Monroe Doctrine is a formula of protection under the guise of a promise of assistance. . . . As a matter of fact, one of the great

parts of the American continent is being swiftly converted into a mere appanage of the United States! First in the diplomatic, and then in the economical sense. Spain and Portugal, our ancient masters, have transferred their rights and privileges to the new metropolis of the New World. Brazil has reason to be suspicious—Spanish America shows neither a surpassing inclination of friendship, nor an unlimited confidence. The Cuban war was started with an injustice to Spain; it led to the annexation of Porto Rico. The negotiations with Panama, which Señor Roosevelt can explain much better than I, have only served to increase our apprehensions, which are: that the results of American imperialism may be just as impartially destructive as those of European imperialism.

The article then gives a short abstract of South American history, as taught in Harvard University; in the main it consists of accounts of occupations and interventions by European powers in South American affairs; also of the more recent diplomatic history and negotiations with the several large republics south of the equator. After indulging in a few vicious side-thrusts at Uncle

Sam for "meddling in internal affairs in Mexico, which is deeply resented," and commenting on the "diplomatic cleverness which succeeded in replacing the dictator Huerta by the dictator Carranza," the article becomes reminiscent:

Ninety-five years ago, in 1820, a certain large landed proprietor in the Argentine, speaking of the foreign policy of the United States, said that "South America could never place entire confidence in a nation which possesses colonies"—the United States then being the only one of the larger powers *not* possessing any! A colonial power is also a conquering power—Rome, Great Britain, Spain and Germany have been especially predominant in this expansion—and the United States has become one of them. Therefore we are apprehensive!

Pan-Americanism, to us, seems a mockery and impossible of realization. There is no racial, linguistic, traditional, or religious community between "Anglo-Saxon-America" (or shall we say, with Bryce, "Teutonic America"?) and Latin

America. The geographical situation has no significance when one considers the distances separating North America from South America, especially since the Panama Canal has severed the connecting strip of land between them. True, we have sometimes interests and sentiments in common, which, properly agitated and played upon, may bring excellent results. "Pan-Americanism" continues to represent the ideal of a single union, and as most of the various "isms" is continually exhibited for the "grand effect" on the people—its actual influence being somewhat less than that of a substantial, solid, silver dollar. . . .

How many of us know exactly what such a doctrine as that of Monroe signifies? If they wish to express its meaning in a few words they say "America for ourselves"! But the word *ourselves* should embrace all the peoples and nations of America. Instead of enunciating and discussing a chimeric doctrine of "forbidden fruit," such as Monroe favored, we should rather work for a clear and thorough understanding between the United States and the Latin-American nations by men of the ingratiating, conciliatory type, such as Ambassador Morgan. . . .

NORWAY BECOMES IMPATIENT

WHILE the eyes of the whole world have been directed towards the storm center on the Balkan peninsula, especially since the entrance of Rumania on the side of the Allies, events are shaping themselves in the northern countries of Europe which may have an important influence on the Great War. Sweden and Norway have watched with growing irritation the continued interference with Scandinavian mails and commerce on the part of Great Britain, and there is every indication that some decisive action will be taken shortly. Officially, the parliaments of Sweden and Norway maintain silence—an ominous silence, in the opinion of the political press of the two countries—but the ban has been lifted on the influential newspapers published at Christiania. Voices are raised in these papers, with the evident consent of the government, vigorously attacking Britain and British methods. The *Morgenbladet*, for instance, says:

While our Storting continues to maintain an absolute silence concerning conditions which are of vital importance to the country, the press has the duty to lift the veil now hanging over Norway's position in commercial politics. This position is far from enviable. Let us take some of the most flagrant examples: "Norwegian manufacturers of oleomargarine are compelled to obtain the permission and consent of the British embassy for each shipment of their product, even destined for Denmark!" The Norwegian-Spitzbergen company, for instance, ordered twelve tons of oleomargarine for its own workmen on

Spitzbergen, but the British legation demanded pledges and securities of a kind which it was practically impossible to give. Therefore, a Norwegian product, intended for Norwegians working on Spitzbergen, had to remain in the warehouses, although the workmen were in dire need of it. It is a peculiar coincidence that dealers in coal, in Norwegian ports, are at the same time dealers in fish and blubber. Dealers are now compelled to turn over to the British embassy a certain percentage of their catch, in return for the permission to buy coal from Great Britain; they are also forced to obtain permission from the embassy to sell small portions of their catch to outsiders.

Verdensgang declares that "the control of the British even goes so far as to put their own superintendents in Norwegian factories, having complete charge of the raw materials, by-products, finished products, packing, and shipping. When the Norwegian Government proposed to have this work superintended by two Norwegians, appointed by the Norwegian Prime Minister, Great Britain curtly refused. This control even extends to the manufacture of packing boxes for oleomargarine, which are shipped from one Norwegian port to another in Norwegian steamers, which are using coal mined in England!"

Aftenposten calls the attention of the people to the following flagrant case:

Fifty thousand bags of oatmeal, which Norway needed for its own use and which were stored in Norwegian warehouses, could not be put on the market because the mill which had done the grinding had supplied the German Red Cross with 400 bags of Norwegian oatmeal, with the

special permit of the Norwegian Government! A small German steamer which reached Christiania in June this year desired thirty small loaves of bread for the twenty men of its crew. A baker who was on the point of delivering the thirty loaves was ordered to desist, on pain of being cut off from American flour supply for the rest of the war—his name was to be put on the blacklist by the British.

Summing up the situation, the *Morgenbladet*, in a later issue, says:

In a world cataclysm the voice of the small

nation is lost—or, at the best, it is so insignificant that the big bullies need pay no attention to protests. However, the example of the bee shows that even where an attack may be followed by death it is sometimes preferable to die fighting for a good cause, rather than submit to humiliations which no sovereign nation ought to suffer. This is not a time for blustering, for vain threats, or vain cries for vengeance; when the fateful word is spoken, it will mean a struggle for life and death. May Heaven prevent such an event—but Great Britain will have to be more of an assistant to Heaven in this preventing than she has been in the past.

MAGNESIUM CHLORIDE FOR WOUNDS

INVALUABLE as has been the aid given by antiseptics to surgery their use is open to a serious objection—namely, that because of their toxic power they are apt to be injurious to the tissues of the body as well as to septic germs. It is for this reason that *aseptic* treatment has made such strides in late years.

Now it is comparatively easy to secure aseptic conditions for operative wounds and those due to ordinary accidents, but the situation is different in wounds received in battle, and particularly in trench warfare. In such cases the injury is only too apt to be gravely infected before it reaches the attention of a competent surgeon.

Hence the use of the ordinary antiseptics known to science, such as hydrogen peroxide, iodoform, permanganate of potash, ether, phenic acid, sublimate and cyanide of mercury, etc., etc., has been exceedingly large in the war hospitals. Since all antiseptics, however, are highly poisonous, they tend to injure the cellular tissues of the body. Consequently surgeons have sought to restrict their use as much as possible by stimulating the efforts of the body itself to counteract the microbic poisons which have invaded it.

As is well known, the white blood corpuscles, known also as leucocytes or phagocytes, are valiant soldiers of defense, attacking the intruding germs and absorbing them, where their numbers are not too great. Obviously, then, anything which increases the activity of the phagocytes will lessen the need of chemical poisons as antiseptics.

In *Larousse Mensuel* (Paris) for August the experiments of a French physician, Delbet, in this field are summarized. He first established the fact that the antiseptics mentioned above are as poisonous to the leucocytes as to the microbes—sometimes even more so. He then studied the ordinary non-

antiseptic dressing of wounds, such as the "physiologic salt solution," containing 8 parts per 1000 of sodium chloride, the nucleinate of soda, Locke's solution, the serum of the horse, and sea-water. We read:

These substances have the reputation of making phagocytosis more active and of thus combating infection. But in what degree? . . . The result of his experiments in this direction showed that these substances were in general not very favorable to the phagocytes, with the exception of the physiologic solution of common salt; even equine serum, sea-water and Locke's solution proved themselves, contrary to current opinion, markedly inferior to the salt solution. This has a record of 168 microbes destroyed to every fifty polynuclears. Thus the cytophylactic (cell-protective) power of the salt solution is very high.

Dr. Delbet's next endeavor was to find out whether it was possible to obtain a liquid whose cytophylactic properties would be even higher than those of the salt solution. He therefore extended his researches to other metallic chlorides, those of manganese, strontium, calcium and magnesium. The latter proved the most sensitive, distinctly superior to the salt. After several experiments the most favorable percentage was found to be 12.1 parts per 1,000.

In these proportions the magnesium chloride notably augments not only the number of polynuclear cells which possess phagocytic (germ-destroying) power, but also the individual phagocytic power of each, in such wise that the total number of microbes destroyed, or "phagocytized," is at least double that of those slain by the sodium chloride.

Dr. Delbet assures us, moreover, that this solution is neither toxic, irritating, nor hemolytic. He advises its use in the dressing of all wounds, whether infected or not, for laving, for local applications on bandages, and for sub-cutaneous injections.

THE NEW BOOKS

GOOD CAMPAIGN READING

DURING the coming month it is safe to say that every voter in the United States will have brought to his attention hundreds of pages of printed matter relating directly or indirectly to the issues under discussion in the current Presidential campaign. The production of this material is a highly specialized industry, to which the national committee of each of the great parties devotes much time, thought, and money, commandeering for this service the brains of some of the ablest writers in the land. Twenty years ago, in the famous "Silver" campaign, the output of these special pleaders began to be called "literature" (usually in quotation marks), and then for the first time the "publicity" work of the committees became systematized and to a certain extent standardized.

Our readers will have an opportunity to get well acquainted with the authorized campaign publications of the respective parties, and not a few of them may prove interesting, if not highly profitable, reading matter. It is not with them, however, that we are here concerned, but with a wholly different group of books, no one of which was written or compiled with a view to influence votes on November 7, but each of which offers information and discussion distinctly helpful in the forming of American public opinion.

THE PRESIDENT'S OWN CONCEPTION OF HIS OFFICE

Let us begin with President Wilson's own contribution—a brochure of only seventy pages, through which he interprets for us the Presidential office in the light of historical evolution.¹ This was written in 1908, while the author was still at Princeton and long before the way to the White House had been opened to him through election as Governor of New Jersey. His conception of the Presidency as a position of leadership is clearly set forth: "His is the vital place of action in the system [of government], whether he accepts it as such or not, and the office is the measure of the man—of his wisdom as well as of his force." The American people have not often had so frank a revelation of a President's thoughts concerning the powers and limitations of his great office. It will bear careful reading as the time approaches when the nation's suffrage must decide whether the author or another is to be its responsible executive for the coming four years.

HUGHES THE STATESMAN REVEALED IN HUGHES THE JURIST

In President Wilson's book we have a revelation (all the more interesting and valuable because it was made before he had held public office) of its author's views on the workings of our national government. The President's opponent in this campaign has had a longer experience in public life; but the last six years of it were passed on the bench and were marked by a proper reticence on current political topics. It

remained for Justice William L. Ransom, of the City Court of New York, to summarize from the judicial opinions written by Justice Hughes during that period those utterances that have a direct bearing on our national problems.² These reveal the outlook of the man and the statesman more clearly, perhaps, than would any document prepared especially for campaign purposes. "National Power Over National Interests," "The Eight-Hour Workday and Compensation for Occupational Disabilities," "The Rights and Industrial Status of Women," "America and the Immigrant of To-day and Yesterday," "The Courts as Expert Agents of Democracy," are among the topics treated. Judge Ransom makes no plea in the book for the election of Mr. Hughes. He simply undertakes to give the voter the information on the candidate's opinions and mode of thinking on public questions that he should have in order to cast his vote intelligently.

A NEW STUDY OF CONSTITUTIONAL GOVERNMENT

An academic authority of the type which Woodrow Wilson himself so well exemplified a few years ago—President Frank J. Goodnow, of Johns Hopkins University—was invited by the Chinese Government to draw up a constitution for that newest of republics. The task involved a survey and reëxamination of constitutional government throughout the modern world, and as the Chinese people, even the most enlightened among them, had only a theoretical knowledge of the subject, Dr. Goodnow's lectures at Peking University were designed to instruct the intellectual leaders of the race in the true meaning of constitutions and their workings. These lectures, now reproduced in book form, treat of constitutional government in its latest applications—for example, "Federal Government in Australia" and "The South African Union," besides the more familiar exemplifications.³

MR. ROOT ON INTERNATIONAL PROBLEMS

Never before have world problems figured so largely in an American election as this year. That fact makes very timely the publication of former Senator Elihu Root's "Addresses on International Subjects."⁴ The last six of the addresses appearing in this volume were composed and delivered after the beginning of the great war. Others, however, like "Protection to Citizens Residing Abroad," "The Declaration of London," and "The Mexican Revolution" (April 21, 1914), bear a direct relation to current history. Mr. Root's views on our dealings with Mexico and the *Lusitania* episode are developed in his address as temporary chairman of the New York Republican State Convention, constituting the final chapter of the book. Lawyers will be inter-

¹ Charles E. Hughes. By William L. Ransom. E. P. Dutton & Co. 353 pp. \$1.50.

² Principles of Constitutional Government. By Frank J. Goodnow, LL.D. Harper & Bros. 396 pp. \$2.

³ Addresses on International Subjects. By Elihu Root. Cambridge: Harvard University Press. 463 pp. \$2.

⁴ The President of the United States. By Woodrow Wilson. Harper & Bros. 71 pp. 50 cents.

ested especially in the addresses on "The Sanction of International Law," "Private Codification of International Law," and "Judicial Settlement of International Disputes." As Secretary of War, Secretary of State, and United States Senator, Mr. Root was for sixteen years in direct contact with the problems of national and international politics that he discusses in these state papers and addresses. This book is a vital expression of the well-matured views of one of the very small group of Americans whose title to recognition as world-statesmen goes unquestioned.

EXCELLENT TEXT-BOOKS AND MANUALS

Several of the new text-books of civics and economics, while intended for school use, have taken a form that should attract to them many adult readers. This is true of "Elementary Civics," by Dr. Charles McCarthy, the Wisconsin legislative reference librarian, assisted by Miss Flora Swan and Miss Jennie McMullin.¹ As the authors state in their preface, they have not attempted in this little book to carry out any stereotyped idea of a text-book in civics. Their aim has been, rather, "to give the child of the upper grades such an understanding of his relation to other people as to make him a good citizen." The titles of some of the chapters indicate how great a departure has been made from the old-fashioned text-books: "Living Together," "The Industrial Revolution and the Ballot," "Why We Vote in Parties," "From the Cave Dweller to Modern Boston," "How the City Does Its Work," "How the City Pays Its Bills," "How the State Does Its Work," "How the United States Does Its Work." It would be a good thing if the campaign committees this year would see that copies of this book were placed in the hands of "first voters."

Professor Ezra T. Towne, of Carleton College, has prepared a text-book suitable for readers of any age on "Social Problems." He has not tried in this work to make original contributions to the subjects of Immigration, Child Labor, Labor Organizations, Crime and Punishment, the Liquor Problem, and the Conservation of Natural Resources, but has collected the available material on all of these matters and arranged them in such a form that it may be used to advantage by all who desire a better understanding of present-day social conditions.

The first book devoted to the new federal farm loan system is the work of Mr. Herbert Myrick, the well-known writer on agricultural topics, who is himself serving as chairman of the Massachusetts Farmland Bank.² In this manual Mr. Myrick defines the purpose and principles of the new system as established by federal law, showing how the National Farm Loan Associations are to be organized and conducted, and also how the joint-stock landbanks are to operate. The author is not convinced that the new law is perfect, but believes that it may be utilized by farmers and investors to accomplish, to a great extent, the purposes that it was intended to serve.

Recent events have greatly stimulated interest in American labor unions. A good introduction to the study of these organizations is offered in Prof. George Gorham Groat's volume on "The Study of Organized Labor in America."³ The more widely an accurate knowledge of the structure of the labor unions is spread abroad the more intelligent will be the action dictated by public opinion in crises like that through which the country passed last month. Professor Groat's chapters on the strike, arbitration, the boycott, the closed shop, and the trade agreement are especially enlightening and useful.

THE MEXICAN CONTROVERSY

THE controversial literature of this year's campaign is very largely devoted to Mexico and the various problems growing out of the revolutionary movements in that country and our own Government's relations to them. In the August number of this Review reference was made to Mrs. O'Shaughnessy's interesting book, "A Diplomat's Wife in Mexico." That book describes conditions in Mexico during the era of "watchful waiting," culminating in the downfall of Dictator Huerta. In a volume entitled "Benighted Mexico," Mr. Randolph Wellford Smith brings the narrative of the Mexican tragedy down to the present day, recounting the successive stages in the development of American policy toward Mexico from the recognition of Carranza to the Columbus incident and the Pershing expedition. Mr. Smith is bitterly hostile to the "First Chief" and naturally finds much to criticize in the acts of the Washington Administration. Like Mrs. O'Shaughnessy, he ren-

ders a Scotch verdict in the case of Huerta. In his opinion the proof of Huerta's complicity in the murder of Madero is lacking.

Meanwhile, for such readers as are more interested in learning the truth about the country, its people, and its resources than in fixing the blame for its present deplorable condition, Mr. George J. Hagar's "Plain Facts About Mexico" answers many pertinent questions. It describes Mexico's agricultural and mining industries, her banking and financial institutions, her systems of communication.

Three years ago there was published a book by Professor Joseph King Goodrich on "The Coming Mexico." Despite the title, the author did not intend his book as a prophecy of Mexico's political future. He wrote from an acquaintance with the country dating back as far as 1866, and the value of his writing lies chiefly in the historical perspective. His book is a good introduction to the study of modern Mexico from an historical standpoint.

¹ Elementary Civics. By Charles McCarthy, Flora Swan, and Jennie McMullin. Thompson, Brown & Co. 232 pp., Ill. 75 cents.

² Social Problems. By Ezra Thayer Towne, Ph.D. The Macmillan Co. 406 pp., Ill. \$1.

³ The Federal Farm Loan System. By Herbert Myrick. Orange Judd Co. 239 pp. \$1.

⁴ An Introduction to the Study of Organized Labor in America. By George Gorham Groat, Ph.D. 494 pp. \$1.75.

⁵ Benighted Mexico. By Randolph Wellford Smith. John Lane Company. 390 pp. \$1.50.

⁶ Plain Facts About Mexico. By George J. Hagar. Harper & Bros. 80 pp. 50 cents.

⁷ The Coming Mexico. By Joseph King Goodrich. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 280 pp., Ill. \$1.50.

BIOGRAPHY AND MEMOIRS

"ALFRED RUSSEL WALLACE: Letters and Reminiscences" is a selection from several thousands of letters entrusted by the Wallace family to Mr. James Marchant.¹ This correspondence began in the early years of the controversy over Darwinism, in which Wallace was vitally interested, since during all that period he was a co-worker with the author of "The Origin of Species." A part of the correspondence between Darwin and Wallace had already appeared in the "Life and Letters of Charles Darwin" and another part in Wallace's autobiography, but it is all now published with new editions for the first time as a whole. The true history of the theory of Natural Selection, the discovery of which was shared between Darwin and Wallace, is set forth as completely in these letters as one may expect to find it in literature. It is refreshing to read this statement by Mr. Marchant: "Nothing has been suppressed in the unpublished letters, or in any of the letters which appear in this volume, because there was anything to hide. Everything Wallace wrote, all his private letters, could be published to the world. His life was an open book—no weakness, no contempt, dispraise, or blame, nothing but well and fair."

"Nearing Jordan" is the title bestowed by Sir Henry Lucy on the third and last volume of his entertaining reminiscences, the publication of which began seven years ago as "Sixty Years in the Wilderness."² Perhaps no living English journalist has had better opportunities for observing politics and social life in many countries than has Sir Henry Lucy. Personally acquainted with the great writers and artists of the Victorian age, he relies not merely on his personal recollection of men and events, but refers to diaries and letters of contemporary origin. The chapters on "Mr. Punch's Young Men" throw many interesting sidelights on literary and journalistic London of the last century.

The "Memories" of Lord Redesdale, who was for forty years in England's foreign office, and served as her representative in Russia, China, and Japan, abound in criticism, description, and comment on diplomatic and international affairs of the last half century.³ It goes without saying that Lord Redesdale, in the course of his long public life, met many interesting people, but his recollections are not confined to matters of state. As a musician and a sportsman, he has seen life from varied angles, and his book is a rather unusual blend of grave and gay.

Still another picture of Victorian politics and society is afforded by Lady Knightley's "Journals," edited by Julia Cartwright (Mrs. Ady).⁴ In this volume, life at Balmoral, Windsor, Osborne, and Frogmore is vividly described, and there is an account of the writer's journey to Berlin and Potsdam, and a visit to Silesia, in company with Princess Christian. Lady Knightley was greatly interested in all questions concerning the well-being of women, and her marriage to Sir Rainald Knightley, in 1869, gave her wide acquaintance with English party leaders.

Booker Washington's story has been told more than once—notably in his own book, "Up From Slavery," but special interest attaches to "The Life and Times of Booker T. Washington," by B. F. Riley, D.D., because of its authorship.⁵ Dr. Riley is a Southern white, a descendant of slaveholders, well known as a clergyman and a scholar. Dr. Riley is one of the rapidly growing group of Southerners who are earnestly striving to make the white people understand the negroes better and to help the negroes to realize their own possibilities. His account of Booker Washington's education at Hampton and his work at Tuskegee will no doubt command unusual attention throughout the South, as well as in those parts of the country where Washington's career is less intimately known.

HISTORY

NEARLY all that we have known about the Spanish settlement of the Pacific coast has come down to us through the records of the Franciscan missions. Recently a new school of California historians, looking upon the establishment of the missions as merely an episode in the Spanish settlement of California, has sought to show what were Spain's controlling motives from the political standpoint in pushing the exploration and colonization of the region that they knew as Alta California. The work of research

undertaken by this new historical school has been furthered by the generous aid of the Native Sons of the Golden West, a patriotic society interested in maintaining an interest in the history of California. This organization supports two traveling fellowships which enable students to visit the archives of old Spain where the original sources of the history of European exploration and adventure on the Pacific coast are to be found. The first fruits of this enlightened policy is a volume on "The Founding of Spanish California," by Dr. Charles Edward Chapman, of the State University.⁶ Nearly all the materials employed by this author were found by him during two years' residence in Seville, Spain. There he has examined hundreds of manuscripts, very few of which had ever been utilized before for any purpose. His book covers the north-westward expansion of New Spain during the

¹ Alfred Russel Wallace: Letters and Reminiscences. By James Marchant. Harper & Bros. 507 pp. \$5.

² Nearing Jordan. By Sir Henry Lucy. E. P. Dutton & Co. 453 pp. \$3.

³ Memories. By Lord Redesdale. E. P. Dutton & Co. 816 pp. 2 v. \$10.

⁴ The Journals of Lady Knightley of Fawsley. Edited by Julia Cartwright (Mrs. Ady). E. P. Dutton & Co. 403 pp. Ill. \$4.25.

⁵ The Life and Times of Booker T. Washington. By B. F. Riley, D.D., LL.D. With introduction by Edgar Y. Mullins, D.D., LL.D. Fleming H. Revell Co. 301 pp. \$1.50.

⁶ The Founding of Spanish California. By Charles Edward Chapman, Ph. D. Macmillan. 485 pp. \$3.50.

century preceding the founding of the United States on the eastern seaboard of the continent. San Francisco itself was founded in the year of our Declaration of Independence and long before that date Spain had a distinctive policy of occupation and settlement on our western coast, a policy based very largely on the necessity of protecting Mexico from the aggressions of England and Russia on the north. We learn from Dr. Chapman's researches that the Spanish Government of the eighteenth century had a very definite notion of its territorial and political status on the Pacific coast of our continent and was keenly alive to the need of an overland route from Mexico to its northern outposts.

Under the title, "Wild Life in the Rocky Mountains," there appears in the Outing Adventure Library a reprint of Lieutenant George Frederick Ruxton's continuation of his "Adventures in Mexico." In the present volume the author gives an account of his journey northward from Chihuahua to the Rocky Mountains. At Valverde he met the advance post of the American army that had invaded Mexico after the declaration of war in May of that year (1846). He did not reach Santa Fé until December. He passed the winter with hunters and trappers at what is now known as South Park, Col. His descriptions of this wild region and of the whites and Indians whom he encountered there picture a wholly different life from what we know to-day. He has left us one

of the few contemporary records of an era in our Southwestern history that makes its own appeal to our imagination.

Apropos of the unusual interest taken this year in the celebration of Lafayette's birthday many American students will be glad to have access to Professor Edward S. Corwin's treatment of "French Policy and the American Alliance of 1778." In this work the author emphasizes the idea that France was moved to intervene in the American Revolution chiefly by her desire to recover her lost preëminence in Europe. In other words, Professor Corwin treats French intervention as an episode in European politics rather than in the struggle between France and England for colonial dominion in America.

In the translation of Dubnow's "History of the Jews in Russia and in Poland" we have for the first time a complete and authoritative account in English of the early history of those peoples in southeastern Europe who have contributed so largely in recent years to American immigration. The first volume of this work, now published, gives the history of Russo-Polish Jewry down to the death of Alexander I, in 1825. The remaining history down to the present time will be comprised in the second volume, not yet in print. The translator, Mr. Friedlander, has wisely inserted many notes explaining details that to the American reader would be largely unintelligible without some aid of this kind.

TRAVEL, DESCRIPTION, AND ADVENTURE

"IT happens that recent books of travel have much to do with the Near and Far East. Stephen Graham, whose accounts of experiences in Russia have been read with much interest in this country as well as in Great Britain, gives us a new volume entitled "Through Russian Central Asia." He made the journey of which this book is the record in the summer before the great war. His impressions were set down in a diary from day to day, and from these articles were written for the *London Times*. The developments of the war have greatly added to the popular interest in the places described by Mr. Graham, for even those remote parts of the Russian Empire through which he journeyed have come more clearly within the range of our vision, since we have begun to think of the future of the Czar's dominions after peace comes. Mr. Graham is one of the very few men of the Occident who have made themselves acquainted with the peoples as well as the lands of this little-known portion of the Orient. There is an appendix on "Russia and India and the Prospects of Anglo-Russian Friendship."

¹ Wild Life in the Rocky Mountains. By George Frederick Ruxton. Outing Publishing Company. 303 pp. \$1.

² French Policy and the American Alliance of 1778. By Edward S. Corwin, Ph.D. Princeton University Press. 430 pp. \$2.

³ History of the Jews in Russia and Poland. By S. M. Dubnow. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society. 413 pp. \$1.50.

⁴ Through Russian Central Asia. By Stephen Graham. The Macmillan Company. 298 pp. Ill. \$2.25.

A region that has come more directly within the zone of actual war was recently traversed by an American traveler, Mr. William Warfield, who describes his journey from the Persian Gulf to the Black Sea in a book that he entitles "The Gate of Asia." He has chapters on the city of Bagdad, the caravan route to Kurdistan and the upper Tigris, the city of Mosul, and Van and the Armenians. Mr. Warfield's descriptive passages and comments on men and things are vivid and entertaining. There are many excellent illustrations from photographs. It is interesting to note that his route crossed those of the historic conquerors and adventurers, Cyrus the Persian, Genghis Khan, Alexander the Great, Xenophon, and the Emperor Julian.

A part of the same territory was covered by Capt. P. C. Fowle, of the British army, who has brought out a volume of "Travels in the Middle East," giving "Impressions by the Way" in Turkish Arabia, Syria, and Persia.⁵ He, too, describes Bagdad, and from Turkish Arabia he passes into Persia, giving in some detail his impressions of life in the towns through which he journeyed. In addition to the photographic illustrations there is a good map of the different countries through which Captain Fowle journeyed.

Mr. Roy Chapman Andrews, who is Assistant Curator of Mammals in the American Mu-

⁵ The Gate of Asia. By William Warfield. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 374 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

⁶ Travels in the Middle East. By Captain T. C. Fowle. E. P. Dutton Co. 281 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

seum of Natural History, New York City, has hit on a fresh subject in his "Whale Hunting with Gun and Camera."¹ It is the general belief that the whaling industry has been on the decline for many years. The truth is, however, that new methods have supplanted the old ones, putting the business upon an entirely different footing, and the whale was probably never before so important a factor in commerce as he is to-day. The old deep-water hunting, when the whalers of New Bedford were the kings of the industry, has given place to what is known as "shore-whaling," in which the Norwegians, ever since the invention of the harpoon-gun in 1864, have led the world. At present the industry yields an annual revenue of nearly \$70,000,000. Mr. Andrews, in his work of collecting for the museum, went twice around the world, as well as northward on two expeditions to Alaska and southward to the waters of Borneo and the Dutch East Indies. He learned many interesting facts about whales, which had been the secrets of the men who hunted them for their living. In all his

work the camera played an important part. The pictures that illustrate his book are in the main from photographs of living whales.

In "The Camera Man,"² by Francis A. Collins, there is abundance of adventure portrayed in both text and pictures. Those who have not followed the work of the camera man in the great war have little conception, perhaps, of how adventurous his career has been. Many a camera man has been under fire; some have been disabled in the pursuit of their calling. Mr. Collins, himself a man of much experience in photography, appreciates the difficulties and dangers under which the photographs of war scenes have been taken, and he illustrates his points with a series of striking photographs which are far more telling than mere words as records of the camera man's activities. His book also contains chapters on news photography in peace times, together with practical suggestions for the amateur photographer. All in all, it is a most suggestive and useful publication.

ENGINEERING AND MECHANICS

SUCH a work as Waddell's "Bridge Engineering" fairly staggers the "general reader" by its very completeness and the author's obvious command of his subject. This is not the place for extended comment on a technical treatise, and indeed such comment, from a non-technical source, on the lifework of so eminent an engineer as Mr. Waddell would be little short of impertinent; but it is only just to speak in this connection of the fine professional loyalty that has inspired the undertaking and completion of this monumental labor. Mr. Waddell has recognized in a most generous way his debt to the calling that he has followed for forty years and to the world's guild of brain workers. At an enormous expenditure of time and money he has made available to his brother engineers the vast store of knowledge that he had gathered in an active career as a bridge designer. In two beautifully printed volumes of over 1000 pages each he unfolds the whole science and art of bridge construction as known to the experts of the twentieth century. "Waddell on Bridge Engineering" is an encyclopædia, a whole library of bridge lore in itself.

A competent automobile engineer, Mr. Victor W. Pagé, has prepared a useful manual of the methods and equipment required in repairing automobiles of various models.³ The owner or manager of a repair shop can, of course, utilize the book for handy reference and so, too, can the car owner who prefers to do his own repairing.

The same author has written a concise treatise on "Modern Starting, Lighting, and Ignition Systems,"⁴ embodying the latest practise. Both books are noteworthy for the clearness and general excellence of their illustration.

So many destructive fires result from defective electric wiring that any practical attempt to provide proper and safe systems of installation should be eagerly welcomed. The manual prepared by Mr. John M. Sharp, of the Bliss Electrical School, Washington, D. C., is based on the rules of the National Electrical Code, as adopted by the Board of Fire Underwriters.⁵

The story of what the tractor has done and is doing to the farm implement industry was told recently in the *Country Gentleman* by Mr. Barton W. Currie. His articles are now brought together in book form.⁶ They point to a new and more economical distribution of farm machinery.

Considering the interest in high explosives that has been awakened both in America and in England during the past two years it seems strange that the obvious need of a convenient handbook of the subject has not sooner been met. We now have a clearly written and illustrated "Manual on Explosives," by Albert R. J. Ramsey and H. Claude Weston.⁷ Although presented in a readable and non-technical form, the subject-matter of this book has the endorsement of high scientific authority in England. Besides the purely descriptive chapters, the authors comment on the applications of explosives in war and engineering, industrial poisoning among explosive workers, and legislation on explosives.

¹ *Whale Hunting with Gun and Camera.* By Roy Chapman Andrews. D. Appleton & Co. 333 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

² *The Camera Man: His Adventures in Many Fields.* By Francis A. Collins. Century. 278 pp. Ill.

³ *Bridge Engineering.* By J. A. L. Waddell. John Wiley & Sons, Inc. 2177 pp. \$10.

⁴ *Automobile Repairing Made Easy.* By Victor W. Pagé, M.E. The Norman W. Henley Publishing Company. 1060 pp. Ill. \$3.

⁵ *Starting, Lighting and Ignition Systems.* By Victor W. Pagé, M.E. The Norman W. Henley Publishing Co. 509 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

⁶ *Practical Electric Wiring.* By John M. Sharp. D. Appleton & Co. 256 pp. Ill. \$1.

⁷ *The Tractor.* By Barton W. Currie. Philadelphia: The Curtis Publishing Co. 228 pp. Ill. \$1.

⁸ *A Manual of Explosives.* By Albert R. J. Ramsey and H. Claude Weston. Dutton. 116 pp. Ill. \$1.

PHILOSOPHY

DR. FREDERICK GOODRICH HENKE, formerly Professor of Philosophy and Psychology in the University of Nanking, China, has made a detailed study of the philosophy of Wang Yang-ming (A. D. 1472-1529), and translated into English his "Biography," "Instructions for Practical Life," "Record of Discourses," and "Letters." Professor Henke has accomplished this fine and scholarly work in the hope that students will gain further knowledge of the achievements of the Chinese, and form a deeper appreciation of their worth. When every indication points to the increase of our commercial and political relations with the East, it is important that the West should understand the thought that has molded the civilization of China. Professor James H. Tufts commends this volume in an excellent interpretative preface. He writes that he has been impressed with Wang Yang-ming's doctrine that "intuitive knowledge is the one thing needful," and that this intuitive faculty manifesting in practical ways is "the embodiment

of natural law." The Chinese philosopher's theories taught that "Nature is one. It is manifested in virtue. It is variously called heaven, Shang-ti (God), fate, disposition, mind. To study the mind then is to study nature."

A most valuable work, and the only complete introduction to Positivism and the works of Comte in the English language, is offered in the new enlarged and revised edition of the papers of Dr. John Henry Bridges, that were contributed to the *Positivist Review* during the last thirteen years of his life.² They are discussions in the fields of science, philosophy, religion, and politics, mature opinions distinguished in their presentation by simplicity and felicitous diction. In connection with the publication of these papers, the London Positivist Society solicits as new members all who wish to see life inspired by a human religion, guided by a philosophy founded on science, and directed to the intelligent service of man.

BOOKS RELATING TO THE WAR

The Great Push. By Patrick MacGill. Doran. 286 pp. \$1.25.

Patrick MacGill, known as the brilliant young Irish novelist, writes this book as his contribution to the history of the famous charge at Loos by the Royal Irish. The same qualities of literary style that have made his stories popular go into the writing of this vivid narrative. Among all the accounts of British fighting in the war this volume by MacGill is distinctly "different." The writer went through all the fighting himself, and although he came through alive, he was seriously wounded. He is now at the front again.

Michael Cassidy, Sergeant. By "Sapper." Doran. 214 pp. \$1.25.

"Sapper" is a young English officer of Engineers. His brief, condensed stories of the trenches bring out new aspects of army life.

"Contemptible." By "Casualty." Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 226 pp. \$1.

The Kaiser himself must bear responsibility for the title of this book, in addition to all his other burdens in connection with the war. It will be remembered that in the days of August, 1914, he alluded to the British troops as "a contemptible little army." "Casualty" accepts the epithet, and in relating what he saw in the early weeks and months of the fighting he makes it clear that while the word may have been justified, if size were the only quality of the army to be considered, it surely did not apply to the spirit of the men who composed it.

On the Anzac Trail. By "Anzac." Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 210 pp. \$1.

One of the New Zealanders who was with the "Anzacs," as the Australian troops style themselves, when they came over from Egypt and landed on the Gallipoli Peninsula, gives in this little book some extracts from the diary that he kept from day to day. While the campaign resulted in failure, this soldier's journal is a revelation of the courage and intrepidity that animated the Anzacs from first to last.

Doing Their Bit. By Boyd Cable. Dutton. 141 pp. \$1.

In other books Mr. Boyd Cable has praised the heroism and endurance of the British armies in the trenches. In this little volume he tells those armies and others interested how their comrades at home are "doing their bit" in supplying arms and munitions to the troops at the front. He has graphic chapters on "The Munition Machine," "Shells and More Shells," "The Women," and "The Master Job." The prefatory note is contributed by the Rt. Hon. David Lloyd George.

Battery Flashes. By "Wagger." Dutton. 183 pp. \$1.

This book is made up of pen-pictures by a gunner, who takes the reader with his battery into action.

From Mons to Ypres with General French. By Frederic Coleman. Dodd, Mead. 381 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

Mr. Coleman is an American who was attached to Sir John French's headquarters during the retreat from Mons and to different cavalry brigades in succeeding months. His book is chiefly

¹ The Philosophy of Wang Yang-ming. By Frederick Goodrich Henke. Chicago: Open Court Co. 512 pp. \$2.50.

² Illustrations of Positivism. By J. H. Bridges. Chicago: Open Court Co. 480 pp. \$1.50.

a description of human and personal conditions at the front, and deals with the various bodies of Allied troops.

Action Front. By Boyd Cable. Dutton. 295 pp. \$1.35.

In this narrative of the war Mr. Cable's plan, as in his other book, "Between the Lines," is to take extracts from the official dispatches and then to show from his own information what these brief messages cover. His book is not altogether given over to the horrors of war, several chapters being largely concerned with the humor of the trenches. It is a good book to read for what it reveals of the real meaning of the war to the men who are engaged in it.

Adventures of a Despatch Rider. By Capt. W. H. L. Watson. Dodd, Mead. 285 pp. \$1.25.

What a British despatch-rider saw in the retreat through Northern France, at the battle of Mons, and at the Aisne. Like many narratives of its kind, this record of happenings in the latter months of 1914 was long delayed in getting into print.

A Woman's Diary of the War. By S. Macnaughtan. Dutton. 168 pp. \$1.

Quite out of the ordinary book of war recollections or observations is this story of what was seen and heard in Belgium by Miss Macnaughtan, the novelist, who joined the Red Cross as

a nurse shortly after the beginning of the war. Brief as they are, these pen-pictures of war scenes are extremely vivid and illuminating.

Germany in Defeat. Second Phase. By Count Charles de Souza. Dutton. 232 pp. \$2.

The second volume of a strategic history of the war that has attracted much notice among military students in Great Britain. The author's thesis is that Germany was defeated at the Marne, that the destinies of Europe have already been settled in France. Although the complete crushing of Germany may require months and years of further sacrifice on the part of the Allies, the author maintains that she is actually in defeat, and in this second volume of his series he discusses what he calls the second phase of that defeat.

Religion in Europe and the World Crisis. By Charles Edward Osborne, M.A. Dodd, Mead. 414 pp. \$2.50.

This volume deals especially with the effect of the war on the religious life of England, Russia, and Germany, and with the future of Catholicism, Protestantism, and orthodoxy.

War the Creator. By Gelett Burgess. B. W. Huebsch. 96 pp. Ill. 60 cents.

This story of a French boy's experience at the battle of the Marne was written by Mr. Burgess for *Collier's Weekly* as epitomizing the spirit of French youth in the war crisis. It was deemed worthy of republication in book form.

OTHER TIMELY PUBLICATIONS

Arms and the Boy. By Colonel L. R. Gignilliat. Introduction by Hon. Newton D. Baker. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Co. 371 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

"Arms and the Boy" is the appropriate title of a volume devoted to the subject of military instruction in schools and colleges. The author is Col. L. R. Gignilliat, superintendent of Culver Military Academy, and the book is the result not only of his own large experience in the well-known institution with which he is connected, but also embodies opinions gathered elsewhere. The Secretary of War, Hon. Newton D. Baker, supplies an introduction. The question of military training for schoolboys has recently become of such increasing importance that a book by an authority in this field that goes so thoroughly into the subject cannot fail to be of great value.

The Soldier's Catechism. Compiled by Major F. C. Bolles, and Captains E. C. Jones and J. S. Upham. Introduction by Major-General Hugh L. Scott. Doubleday, Page & Co. 177 pp. Ill. \$1.

The question-and-answer method of conveying information makes for conciseness, and "The Soldier's Catechism" can be recommended for this reason. Its three compilers are officers of the United States, and an introduction to the book has been written by Major-General

Hugh L. Scott. The book is a complete manual for the soldier, is endorsed by the Army War College, and covers in simple language not only the strictly military phases of a soldier's life, but also such subjects as sanitation, first aid, and the military history of the United States.

The Ocean and Its Mysteries. By A. Hyatt Verrill. Duffield. 189 pp. \$1.25.

The actual facts about the ocean told in a simple entertaining way that will delight boys and girls who like stories of the sea. The author presents the results of several summers of research spent at the various stations of the United States Fish Commission and on ships engaged in the exploration of marine life in the North Atlantic.

Leading Opinions Both for and against National Defense. Edited by Hudson Maxim. 154 pp. 50 cents.

This book places the essentials of the reasons and arguments of the pacifists and the martialists side by side so that the people may examine and appraise according to evidence on both sides of the question. Henry Ford, Nicholas Murray Butler, Theodore Roosevelt, W. J. Bryan, Hon. Claude Kitchin, Hamilton Holt, Rev. William Carter, and many other prominent men are represented in the volume. A most useful book for debaters and public speakers.

FINANCIAL NEWS

I.—RAILROAD SECURITIES UNDER THE NEW EIGHT-HOUR-DAY LAW

HOLDERS of railroad securities have endured so much in the past five years that they have become callous to treasury raids by labor organizations and through new legislation. They have been, however, greatly stirred by over-night passage by Congress at the end of August of the eight-hour-day law, which will impose a burden of at least \$50,000,000, and possibly twice or three times as much, according as the measure is interpreted to include others than engineers, firemen, conductors, and trainmen engaged in interstate traffic. It was not so much the direct cost as the manner of enforcing it and the consequences of this arbitrary act on all subsequent negotiations that has caused the anxiety and made the individual and institutional holder of railroad bonds and high-grade stocks ask the question whether they should be sold or at least a part of them transferred into industrial and public-utility issues.

Large Traffic Earnings

There is no evidence yet that the great body of railroad security holders has taken action. It may be thinking hard and mentally revising its lists, but it is not selling. And it is doubtful if it does to any great extent. Certainly the savings banks and great insurance companies, which own many hundreds of millions worth, most of which cost them much higher prices than are now obtainable, are not likely to take losses because of the additional operating cost to one road of, say, \$1,500,000 or to another of \$3,000,000. This is a small percentage of the amount available for fixed charges and it need not, this calendar year, cause a reduction in the dividend on any railroad stock. Fortunately the traffic returns of the carriers are larger than they have ever been before and the new wage plan does not go into effect until January 1, 1917. In the six months ended June 30, 1916, the *Financial Chronicle* makes the gain in gross earnings of the American railroads \$238,000,000, or about 23½ per cent., and the net increase \$166,151,000, or 42¼ per

cent., and as July, August, and September carried this ratio along and even improved a little on it we may expect for the twelve months ended December 31 a net gain of between \$250,000,000 and \$300,000,000, five times the minimum expenditure on the wage account and possibly from two to two and one-half times the probable maximum.

For the present, therefore, depreciation in the value of railroad securities would be unlikely as a result of the Adamson law. Even those junior bonds, such as second and third mortgages, refunding or debenture issues on which the normal margin of safety is low, need not be impaired. In the fiscal year ended June 30, 1915, quite a number of railroads paid dividends from the surplus revenues of other years. A great change has since occurred. We find such systems as the Pennsylvania, New York Central, Norfolk & Western, and Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé realizing nearly 50 per cent. more return on property investment than the average of previous years, and nearly all roads as much as in 1910, when most of their capitalizations were smaller than to-day. The Norfolk & Western was able not only to increase its common-stock dividend and pay an extra dividend of 1 per cent., but it took over \$9,000,000 from surplus earnings in the year 1915-16 and applied it to betterments. Equities have been increased very generously, because very few dividends have been advanced beyond the figures of poorer times. Therefore, it would require at least two years of contracting earnings to make an impression on security values because of the higher wage cost.

Effect on Railroad Financing

Sentiment rather than earnings frequently establishes the credit of a property. The proof of this is the sluggish movement in railroad securities during a year of the largest receipts ever known and when industrial stocks have reached the highest average on record. Back of this is a fixed prejudice against "rails" because of the anti-

railroad legislation since 1910 and the continual prodding by the labor unions for more pay. The evidence in the rate case of 1914 all established the fact that these demands were cutting down the return on property investment year after year until it was impossible to borrow money at current rates, put it into new construction of improvements, and make it yield a profit. Bankers, consequently, have been more impressed by what happened in Washington at the end of August than have security holders. Had there been any important railroad financing pending when the Congress enacted the eight-hour day for the carriers it would have received a very poor response. It is doubtful if any considerable amount of new railroad bonds, or notes, could have been sold the first week of September, except at a high rate of interest relative to rates current a month earlier. The Boston & Maine receivership came at this time and while it was not precipitated by the new law it made wearied note-holders, who had five times deferred their demands for payment at maturity, even more reluctant to continue this procrastinating policy. A program for the expenditure of about \$25,000,000, which directors of another road in none too good credit were framing, was indefinitely postponed. Meanwhile the securities of these properties were not under pressure and even had temporary advances in sympathy with others and from lack of offerings from holders whose patience had long been tested.

It was shown during the hearing in Washington that there were twice as many individual investors as there were employees in the unions demanding higher wages. The one group was unorganized and the other highly organized. Sporadic attempts have been made to interest bondholders and stockholders in their properties and to unite against some of the legislative impositions which have seriously impaired their equities. This has been a slow and very discouraging procedure. One effect of the eight-hour law has been to awaken the slumbering investor to an appreciation of what he must do if his securities are to be held on an even keel. Thousands of protests have been sent to Senators and to Congressmen who voted for the bill, but—more practicable—as many names have been affixed to petitions to create an investors' defensive league, which will be represented at Washington or at any State capital where legislation inimical to railroads is being argued. This is one of the favorable reactions from the recently created law.

Demand for Federal Regulation

Another compensation will be a demand for federal regulation of the carriers instead of the operation of so many laws under State authority. It is probable that the whole subject of railroad rates, wages, and revenues will occupy Congress at its next session to a larger extent than any other question. This has been promised by President Wilson and lawmakers appreciate the popular demand for it. In the end it is quite possible that the cost of the new law may be balanced by a more economical working arrangement with the Government, and less hindrances from local commissions, and that, even without a freight-rate increase, the new state of things may be better than that now prevailing.

The Question of Government Ownership

Government ownership as a solution of troubles such as have just occurred has frequently been proposed. To many this seems the only way out of the difficulty. It was one of the covert threats held over the heads of the railroad managers while they were negotiating in Washington. Newspapers proclaimed it as the great panacea for strikes when it seemed probable there would be a walk-out on September 4. The idea of it is not pleasing to railroad managers and there has so far been no suggestion that the brotherhood leaders are agreeable to it. The chief party in interest would seem to be the holders of railroad securities. What would they get should the United States Government decide to buy and operate the main systems of the country?

It is a fixed business axiom that the eager buyer usually pays a good price for the thing or commodity he covets. Frequently he is able to depreciate it by various means known to manipulators, but the average result is favorable to the seller. The precedents in this particular instance would be the action of Prussia and Switzerland when they took over from private ownership the leading transportation lines in those countries.

The basis on which Prussia bought control was twenty-five times average net earnings for a period of five years. Switzerland paid twenty-five times the average annual net for a period of ten years preceding purchase. In 1844 there was enacted a law in Great Britain which provided that, should government ownership be adopted, the state should take the railways which had earned 10 per cent. at twenty-five years' purchase of their

average net earnings for the preceding five years, or on the same basis as did Prussia and Switzerland. Japan found another means of reckoning. She approximated the average rate of profit during six semi-annual periods between 1902 and 1905 and multiplied by twenty. "If the rate of profit," according to Slater on "The Railways of Japan," "had been 6 per cent., the government paid 120 per cent. of the construction cost." It was found that in some cases the

capitalization of the railroads was paid for twice over.

It will be another five years before the physical valuation of the railroads now being made under government auspices is completed. Until its conclusions are available not much legislation can be enacted seeking to transfer operation from private to federal authorities. In the meanwhile a great deal of constructive railroad legislation is likely to go on the statute-books.

II.—INVESTORS' QUERIES AND ANSWERS

No. 778. STOCKS FOR A WOMAN'S INVESTMENT

I am a reader of your department—a woman having a little money on whose earning power I am dependent for my living. I know next to nothing of investment, my experience having been confined entirely to mortgages. At present I have some funds to invest. There have been brought to my notice the following companies each offering 7 per cent. cumulative preferred stock, namely, Central Steel Company of Massillon, Ohio, Gramm Motor Truck Company of Lima, Ohio, Beaver Company of Buffalo, N. Y., and Beaver Wood Fibre Company of Thorold, Ontario. My question is: For permanent investment, thinking more of safety than marketability, do you consider this kind of investment good for me?

The stocks in question are representative of a class of securities, in our opinion, not well adapted to your needs. If you were to go into preferred stock investments at all, we think your selections ought to be made from among the long-established, dividend-paying issues of the better-known companies, preferably those listed on the New York Stock Exchange. In securities of this type, there is always more or less business risk, even under the most favorable circumstances. And the risk is apt to be emphasized in issues of relatively small and little-known companies, if for no other reason than that it is, as a rule, difficult for one to keep adequately informed about them. Only a short time ago, the editor of this department had occasion to ask the officers of one of the companies you mention for some essential information, but the request was not granted, because, as we were advised, the directors did not consider it business prudence. We do not undertake, of course, to question the wisdom of such a policy from their point of view, but we do say that stocks about which essential information is withheld for any reason are not to be recommended without a good deal of qualification, especially to investors like you.

Another thing: We believe it to be entirely illogical for one to disregard the question of marketability in considering stocks of any kind. Such securities are, as you know, unlike mortgages or bonds having definite maturity dates. As a rule they are irredeemable, so that the holder's only recourse is to the market, in case there is need for him to recover his principal, and there are few investors, indeed, who can be sure of not being confronted with such a need, unexpectedly. One may not necessarily confine one's stock investments to issues of such active markets that they can be sold at a moment's notice on any business day of the year, but we believe it is a mistake for one to hold stocks, especially of the industrial variety, whose market is controlled en-

tirely by a single banking house. This is intended as a broad statement of investment policy.

Quite as a matter of fact, we are inclined to doubt that you ought to put your money into stocks of any kind. Intelligently selected mortgages or bonds are undeniably better investments for people of relatively small means and, like you, of limited investment experience.

No. 779. SOME SHORT-TERM SECURITIES

I have about \$6,000 I would like to invest safely and make it yield as much as possible. I imagine I should have short-time securities. Have you anything you can suggest that yields better than 4 per cent?

Had you given us a better idea of your situation, we think perhaps we should have been able to help you in a little more definite way than seems possible in the circumstances.

However, if in saying you imagine you ought to have short-term securities, you mean to imply that there are circumstances calling for the ready convertibility of your investments into cash, it strikes us you might do well to consider issues like the following: American Telephone & Telegraph 4½ per cent. notes, due February 15, 1918, yielding about 4.40 per cent.; Brooklyn Rapid Transit 5 per cent. notes, due July 1, 1918, yielding about 4.90 per cent.; Great Northern Railway-Northern Pacific joint collateral trust 4 per cent. bonds, due July 1, 1921, yielding about 4.35 per cent.; Southern Railway 5 per cent. notes, due March 1, 1917, yielding about 4.20 per cent.; Government of the Argentine Nation 6 per cent. notes, due December 15, 1916, yielding about 4.60 per cent.; Government of the Argentine Nation discount notes, due February 21, 1917, yielding about 6 per cent.; United Light & Railways 6 per cent. notes, due January 1, 1920, yielding about 5.62 per cent.; Kansas City Railways 5½ per cent. notes, due July 1, 1918, yielding about 5.22 per cent.; Tri-City Railway & Light first lien 5 per cent. bonds, due April 1, 1923, yielding about 5.05 per cent.; Government of the Province of Manitoba, Canada, 5 per cent. bonds, due April 1, 1919, yielding 5 per cent.; City of Greeley, Colorado, 4½ per cent. refunding waterworks bonds, due July 2, 1920, yielding about 4.30 per cent.; City of Maisonneuve, Canada, 6 per cent. bonds, due January 1, 1918, yielding about 5½ per cent.

Another class of very desirable securities adapted to such requirements as yours is represented by mortgages on productive farm land, of which there are many conservative offerings having an average maturity of about five years.

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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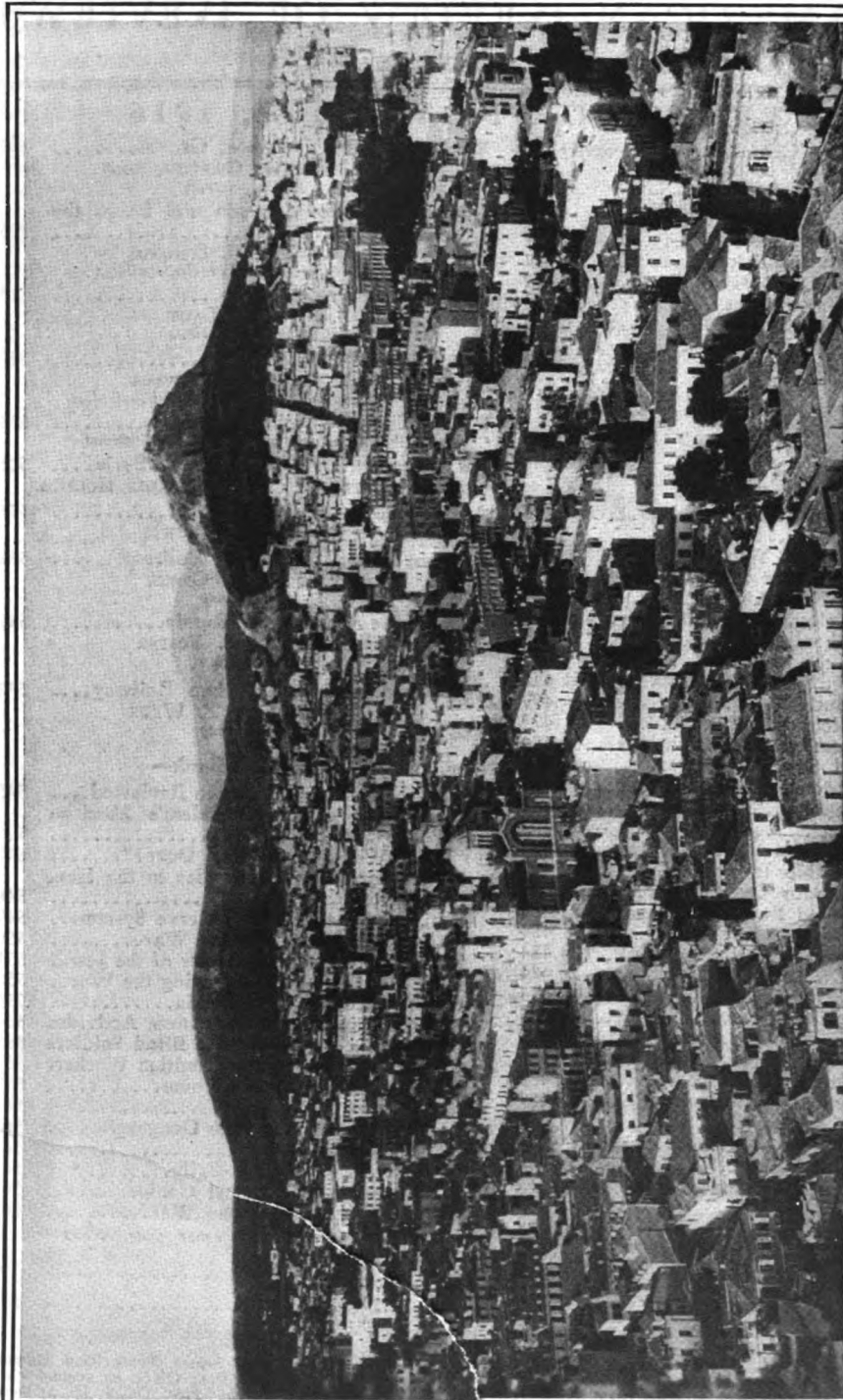
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Nov.—1

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Photograph by Press Illustrating Service

ANCIENT ATHENS AGAIN BECOMES A CENTER OF WORLD INTEREST

During the past month the war current has caught the little Kingdom of Greece more strongly in its power, and as a result Athens became the scene of clashing partisan activity. This picture, taken from the Acropolis and looking toward Lycabettus hill, shows the modern portion of the city. In the left center is the Cathedral; further in the background, on the right, is the royal palace, and between the two is located the University, now occupied as a barracks by Allied troops.

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No. 5

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*Breaking
Party Fences*

The presidential campaign now drawing to a close has been unusual on more than one account, but most of all for the reason that the country itself has recognized no platforms, no issues, no parties. If Mr. Wilson carries the election, it will not be upon the claims of the Democratic party but rather upon those of the Progressives, since it is asserted for him that the President is the real leader of progressive thought, policy, and performance in this country. The Republicans are not campaigning on party lines, because they are claiming much credit for the principal constructive achievements of the past four years, and are thereby giving to those achievements a non-partisan character. Thus the Republicans claim their full share of credit for the currency and banking legislation; they claim that the trust legislation adds nothing of much consequence to the Sherman Anti-Trust Law, which they themselves had originated and upheld; they claim that the new Tariff Commission plan has been borrowed from them, and admit that it is a good thing; they claim that the new navy is a measure in pursuance of their own aims and policies. And in making all these claims, and many others, they are not creating issues, but rather are acknowledging that the country has lifted certain things out of the field of party dispute and has accepted them as matters no longer in controversy. Party fences are sadly out of repair, and nobody knows what drifts of sentiment will prevail on November 7.

*The Navy an
Accepted Policy*

It is typically true of the greatest of all our recent legislative decisions—that which has provided for a colossal increase in the navy—that the old-time party division has disappeared. What this means for the national safety we attempted to set forth in the editorial pages of our September number; and

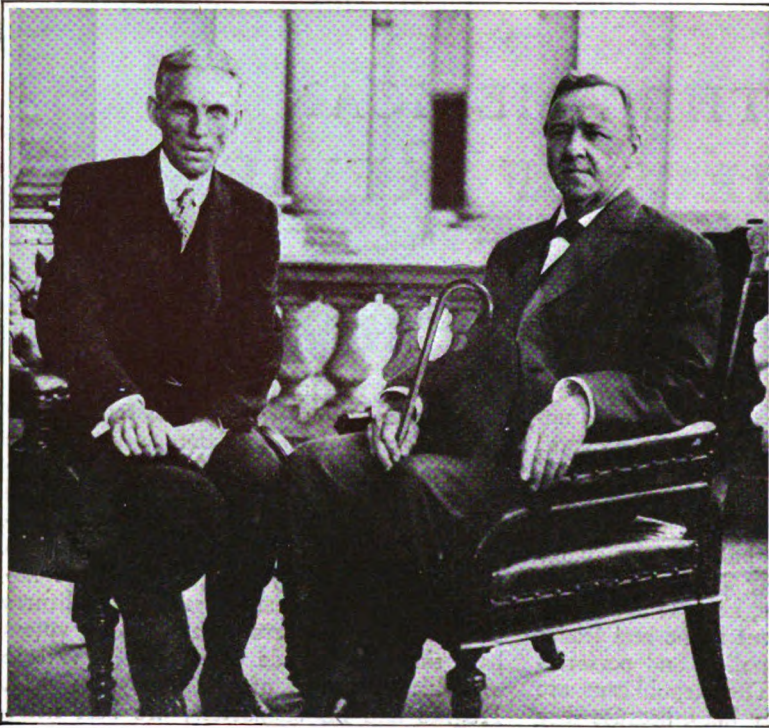
we present this month an article that describes more completely and thoroughly the project of naval construction as it becomes a technical matter. Unquestionably this momentous undertaking is in accord with the judgment and the decision of the great public, and is without partisan bearing. To work out the policy will require rare administrative ability and heavy expenditures extending over several years. The voters have simply to decide whether Mr. Wilson and his Secretary of the Navy, or Mr. Hughes and his supporters, are best fitted to carry out this and related projects of national defense. The policy itself is originally Republican rather than Democratic; but unexpectedly and at the eleventh hour the Democrats, being in full power, accepted it and made it their own.

*Who Will Build
the Ships?*

Will they give it effect with vigor and success? When discussing the new navy, it is well to remember that it exists as yet only on paper. The Navy Department has not yet even begun to build important ships authorized by Congress in the naval appropriations of the previous year. Governments build warships much more rapidly and efficiently in Europe than we do in America. It is very difficult just now to get any ships built, because of abnormal conditions. It is highly important to have this construction work pushed with energy. Is Secretary Daniels the man to direct it, or would Hughes find a more competent head of the Department? And who can find the sailors and gunners—many thousands of them—that the new ships will require?

*Money Question
Out of Politics*

The great projects of banking and currency reform, which have been more or less perfectly adopted and put into practise, are not the work of either political party, but are in point



Photograph by G. V. Buck, Washington

SECRETARY DANIELS OF THE NAVY DEPARTMENT (ON THE RIGHT), IN CONFERENCE WITH MR. HENRY FORD ON SUBMARINES AND NAVAL PROGRESS

of fact the direct outcome of the study and work of our financial and business leaders, who had been pressing for such reforms for a number of years. It has been creditable to the Wilson Administration that it forced the Democratic party to assist rather than to obstruct the consummation of these desired objects. It has been in spite of political parties, rather than by virtue of them, that the country's political economists, financiers, bankers, and best business minds have been able to improve our monetary and banking system. From the standpoint of these questions, neither Wilson nor Hughes can be successfully opposed. The candidates stand alike for safe and sound monetary laws and good banking administration.

Twenty Years Ago, and Now It is exactly twenty years ago that the country was fighting its great and conclusive campaign on the money question. The Bryan hosts of 1896 were sincere, and some of their theories were plausible. But their practical position was not solid, and the country in deciding against them expressed its purpose to have a well-founded and safe monetary system. There followed the careful work of expert bankers in seeking to safeguard the credit

system and to do away with panics and money famines. Under the leadership of Senator Aldrich, Congress joined in the study of this question. President Wilson is entitled to much credit for obtaining Mr. Bryan's approval for a measure which it thus became possible to pass through a Democratic Congress that was largely under Mr. Bryan's influence. It was much better for the country that the Democrats rather than the Republicans should have been in power, because sound money now stands delivered from its former enemies. In their new-found zeal

for scientific finance, the Democrats are even going so far as to argue on the stump that the Federal Reserve System and our improved banking methods would not be safe if the Republicans should come back into power! It is pleasant indeed to find this solicitude for the preservation of good measures. We may be certain that neither party will dare to retrace such steps towards improved currency and banking arrangements as have been taken.

*Business, and
Government
Action*

The attitude of our Federal Government towards the modern tendencies of business, working through large corporations, remains quite unsettled. Common-sense methods have in the past been opposed and frustrated by political leaders, both Democratic and Republican. There is little to choose between the parties on this score. Perhaps the Trade Commission is to give us the beginning of a rational system. Federal incorporation for railroads and large industrial companies is to be desired. Much of the attempt of States to regulate railroads and so-called "trusts" is futile and damaging. The problem of Governmental supervision of business is not yet solved, and the wise solution will not be

helped by pretending, in the face of truth, that the problem is in its nature one for controversy between political parties. The obvious fact is that the parties are survivals, and that they interfere a good deal with the task of having the country efficiently governed. Our business life, after the great war, will demand intelligent treatment at Washington. Would it fare better at the hands of Wilson, or at those of Hughes?

*The Party
Net-work*

The party tradition is a strong one, while the machinery is even stronger than the tradition. It is due to the strength of the party machinery that we are guilty of mixing up so many different things in the election contest of November 7. We ought to be choosing Presidential electors, Members of Congress, and United States Senators only. Our great Government is entitled, once in four years, to an election all its own. There is no other important country in the world that brings together national, State, judicial, county, municipal, township, and school-district elections, holding them all on the same day and printing the names of all candidates on the same ballot paper. Many simple-minded people are not aware that this arrangement is firmly maintained by the party politicians, because it throws the business of government into the hands of those who profit by politics as a trade. In England, in a great national election, the voter has only to choose his own member of Parliament. He will find two, perhaps three, names on the voting paper, each name representing a party or a movement. He marks a cross opposite one name, and that is his way of governing the British Empire. Municipal reformers in a number of our States have succeeded in separating city elections from national and State. But we should by all means separate the State and county contests from the national. In New York, for example, besides the choice of forty-five Presidential electors, a United States Senator, and a Congressman in each of the districts, the voters are to elect a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, Controllor, Treasurer, Attorney General, State Engineer, and Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals. They have also to elect judges for various local districts. They have to elect members of both branches of the State legislature. Besides which they have county tickets to deal with, and various other issues, general and local. The voter cannot act with full knowledge, and party lines are followed.

*Parties, but
No Policies*

In one sense, we have had under President Wilson the most complete illustration of government by party that has ever been afforded in American history. Mr. Wilson has always, in theory, favored the English system of "ins" and "outs," and rule by a party in power. He has made himself a prime minister, has held his forces together, and has controlled his majority so effectively that they have reversed themselves obediently with dizzy heads as often as he has told them they



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THE LONG BALLOT IN NEW YORK THIS YEAR

(Our picture shows Francis M. Hugo, Secretary of State of New York, holding up one of the ballot papers that will be sent to the New York troops now on the Mexican border. So many candidates are to be voted for that the ballot is eight feet long)

must. But in the sense of party government that signifies fixed lines of policy, as against those adhered to by an opposition, the thing has for the most part disappeared. The consequence is that, while we have more or less unfinished public business on hand, we have no unfinished program to be carried out by the party in power, because no essential differences mark the parties. We have whirled through a maze of incidents; have had a hundred crises; have thrust ourselves into emergencies and spiraled ourselves out of them, and no firm lines of party policy are discernible. This indicates a spirit of national unity.

Who Are the Democrats? The Democrats, who were once opposed to centralizing tendencies, have now carried central authority beyond the aims of any other group except the Socialists. Though they have changed the tariff and, in some ways, reduced it a good deal, they have operated mainly within protectionist lines, and their Tariff Commission presupposes the protectionist argument. The Democrats have never been a coherent party, having long been composed of four large, distinct elements, and some lesser ones. The large elements have been (1) the Eastern conservative wing, led by the late Mr. Cleveland, a political group usually more reactionary than any part of the Republican organization; (2) the radical wing, led typically by Mr. Bryan, always strongest

in the West and Southwest; (3) the Democracy of the "solid South," to be found in those States where there is practically only one party, for sectional reasons; (4) the entity known as Tammany Hall, an organization without political principles or convictions, that controls the party machinery of the metropolis and the State of New York. The Republican party, particularly now that so many of the Progressives have come back to it, has also its divergences of sentiment as respects points of political doctrine. But there is never a time when the Republicans are not more essentially homogeneous than are the elements and factions which have in common the Democratic name. When the Democrats come into power, they are unable to act unitedly, except as they submit themselves to the leadership of their President and bind themselves to specific action from time to time by the harsh rule of party caucus. Mr. Wilson as President has shown a skill in exacting obedience from Congressional majorities that has never been surpassed, and probably never equaled in the history of the country. The result has been constructive and important in surprising measure. The public business has been carried on in such a way that the Democrats could not this year have found any platform or any leader except Mr. Wilson, as interpreting himself.

*Facing
the Next
Four Years*

The important thing for the country is the wise management of our affairs during the years to come. We have made two military invasions of Mexico, on a considerable scale, and have withdrawn from both under circumstances that have perhaps added more difficulties than they have removed. As soon as the European War is over we shall be held to accountability by Europe for our part in the Mexican anarchy that has sacrificed so many innocent lives and so much property. We have been without a definite Mexican policy in the years past, and neither of the parties gives us much clue to what its Mexican policy is to be in the future. The National Guard was sent to the border with a view to reinforcing Gen. Pershing in the expected occupation and protection of northern Mexico. There is no other rational explanation, and this view, so far as we know, is not contradicted in any quarter. A few months ago President Wilson and the party leaders had decided to abandon the Philippines off-hand. Nothing so extraordinary in the history of the government of dependent communities had happened anywhere in modern



SAFETY FIRST!

"I am all there is between you and war in the next four years."—From the *Herald* (New York)

history. What do the Democrats intend to do in future about the Philippines?

What of the Philippines?

The "scuttle" bill had been passed through the Senate, and it had been arranged to have it go through the House without the change of a detail, in order to avoid either delay in conference committee or danger of further debate in the Senate. Public opinion, however, began to be heard from; some unexpected opposition developed in the House; the project of scuttle was thereupon abandoned for the time being, and we have come into the campaign without a single word from President Wilson or the Administration of their intentions on this great subject in case they are accorded four years more of power. So far as the world goes, the sovereignty of the American flag in the Philippines is as firmly settled as it is in Alaska, where this Administration is building a Government railroad. The proposal to abandon the Philippines abruptly, that failed only by an unexpected fluke, was a fantastic instance of our improvised and sudden shifts of public policy. It illustrates that dangerous facility of mind sometimes found in men of brilliant parts and of literary and academic habits, which too readily sees the different sides of a given proposition, and too easily veers from one practical attitude to another.

America as a Neutral

Until the present time, since the European War broke out, our international position has been simple and easy beyond that of any other Government. The European Powers, ranged in a life and death struggle, could not possibly entertain a serious controversy with the United States. The leverage has been in our hands to such an extent that there is no question involving clear neutral rights which could not have been settled within forty-eight hours by a whisper, if dealt with at the moment when the question arose. The German submarine policy was entered upon by way of reprisal, because of interferences with neutral rights of commerce that our own Government had denounced. We had but to act rather than to speak, and those rights would have been acknowledged and safeguarded. The Allies were so dependent upon trade with this country that their Orders in Council would never have transgressed our reasonable rights for a single week if we had chosen to maintain such rights. And if we had so chosen, it would not have been necessary to have made arguments, or written



NOTES AND NOTES

THE SHARKS: "How about sending a note to Wilson about all those ships that are continually coming down!"
From *Il Mulo* (Bologna, Italy)

notes, or provoked newspaper discussion. The German Government had, in answer to our "identic note," informed us that they would not enter upon their threatened submarine campaign against merchant ships if the Allies would modify those practices which had been pronounced by the United States Government as contrary to the rights of neutrals.

Where We Failed

All the long, painful, and humiliating chapters of our subsequent dealing with Germany on the one hand and with England on the other would have been obviated if we had stood at the time by the doctrines that we ourselves laid down in the identic note of February 20, 1915. And this would have required no blustering, no use of the navy, nothing whatever but a quiet word to the effect that we meant immediately and without delay to act upon the views that we had officially formulated. We should not have had to declare an embargo upon all trade with the Allies, because a private hint of our unwavering intention would have secured for us all that we had claimed. And if we had taken this obvious step—fully required by self-respect after we had formulated our doctrine of neutral rights—there could have been no *Lusitania* tragedy, nor

any color of excuse for the unlawful policy of torpedoing passenger and merchant ships without observance of the established rules regarding the giving of warning and the protection of life. If these observations were in the nature of after-thoughts, we should not now express them. They were so obvious at the time that we expressed them fully and repeatedly.

*What Should
Have Been*

Not to have foreseen the dangers into which we were drifting was fatuous, and in our opinion it was a mistake that may pursue us harmfully for a hundred years. The little leak in the dike, so easily stopped when first seen, grows into a flood. We could have secured the observance of neutral rights by a word, could have prevented submarine outrage by firmness and foresight, and could have won the respect alike of both belligerent groups, and also the gratitude of the neutral group that was begging for our coöperation and our moral leadership. In the world's view to-day, we do not rank with countries like Sweden and Holland in the firm assertion of neutral rights. We ought to have accumulated no grievances against any of the belligerents; but as matters stand we have made the written record in so many unsettled questions of grave controversy that every thoughtful man must dread the reckoning. Good sense and firm action from the beginning of the war would have forestalled complaints, settled issues before they had emerged into definite disagreements, and left us in a position of safety with honor. With no claims or grievances of our own to consider, we should have been morally prepared to help the war-crazed and suffering world to find its way back to peace, and its way forward to disarmament.

*Our
Continuing
Danger*

It is not pleasant to criticize, but in this campaign so many men have asked what could have been done and what should have been done, that it is permissible to say that we drifted into danger through sheer failure to uphold our own position. Much useless debate has turned upon what should have been done after the *Lusitania* was sunk. All the fundamental mistakes of our policy had been made long before the *Lusitania* episode. The German policy of reprisal was against neutral rights, and we should have stopped it at the moment of its inception. This could have been done by firm and courageous action. It would have involved us in no danger. Now,

however, we are in real danger, because the highest authorities in this Democratic campaign do not deny that if the resumption of a more reckless form of submarine activity should result in the accidental loss of American lives on merchant ships, President Wilson would make war against Germany. This would be a dire calamity; and it is plain to see that its origin would date back to the time when, instead of challenging and preventing the submarine policy, early in 1915, we yielded our rights and suffered that policy to be entered upon, merely writing a warning note, while awaiting the inevitable.

*"Account-
ability"
for What?*

It is as if in a feud between neighbors one of them should announce to you, a mutual friend, that he intended to shoot across your doorway and through your windows, with a view to getting at his enemy on the other side, advising you to look out for yourself as best you could. Would you then have informed him that after he had killed one of your children you would hold him to strict accountability, or would you have challenged his proposal immediately, and prevented him, for everybody's best interests, from putting his insane purpose into effect? What we did as a public policy was to inform Germany that when an illegal mode of warfare on the common highway of the seas had resulted—as it certainly must sooner or later—in the death of Americans, we would then proceed to hold her to strict accountability. We did not make it clear whether we would arraign her for the policy, or for the harm to individuals. The atrocious thing in the public sense was the policy itself. We could have stopped it by challenging it instantly. We could also have previously stopped it by informing England that she must conform to the principles we had so clearly laid down in the identic note.

*British
Regulations*

Less important relatively, but of similar character, has been our later dealing with the English practice of seizing our mails and of controlling at all points and in every detail the operations of our commerce with neutral countries. It was for us either to come to an understanding with England promptly about such practices, at the very outset, or else to take a firm stand upon our rights, as Grover Cleveland or Andrew Jackson, not to mention any other President, would certainly have done. Remember, our Government has in form of words taken its position.

It has denied the right of England to do certain things with our mails. Yet England has continued without interruption to seize and open all classes of American mail and to make note of all our commercial transactions. This course was not ventured upon by the British Government for a considerable time. It was begun rather tentatively, as if to see how we would take it. Our Government seemed to be very slow in noticing it, and the seizures became ever bolder and more regardless of the postal treaties and the rules of international law. These practices would have been stopped at the beginning if we had defined our rights, declared that we would maintain them, and shown that we meant what we said. The private, friendly expression of our intentions would have sufficed; and the press need never have heard of it.

*Abandoned
Rights*

Legal arguments in matters of that kind are of no consequence.

Either you do not allow your mail to be opened, or else you suffer it. We have suffered it; and our protests are not worth the paper they are written upon. John Bull in our place would never have tolerated the indignity. We have tolerated it, and therefore condoned it. The best thing to do is to forget it. As regards these matters, including the "blacklist" and a variety of other measures that violate commercial rights, there can be no future redress. Not to assert and maintain one's rights at the moment is to abandon them. The British Government may rightly say that it regards the course pursued by the American Government as equivalent to full acquiescence in and acceptance of the Orders in Council and the means taken by the Allies to enforce them. Unfortunately, however, our diplomatic methods have produced a series of formal written declarations of grievance and wrong, and these may result in future trouble. There are no predicaments of this sort which we have not ourselves created, in view of the ease with which we could at the outset have prevented their accumulation. It is, then, for the country to decide whether the Wilson methods of controversial note-writing are to be continued, or whether there may be found some way to wipe the slate clean and go forward with full protection of all such American rights as we are currently defining as proper and necessary to be sustained. It is wholly possible that minds like those of Mr. Hughes and Mr. Root, coming freshly to the business of straightening out these diplomatic tangles, would be



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SCRAPS OF PAPER
From the Tribune (Chicago)

able to render superior service to our country in the coming four years. We are strongly impressed with the reasonableness of that view.

*"Keeping Us
Out of
War"*

There is no evidence, however, that issues like these are very clearly in the public mind just now. Undoubtedly President Wilson has desired above all things to keep this country out of war. Yet he has managed, as respects Mexico and as respects Germany, to keep the country in constant fear lest his policies should embroil us in war. That our occupation of Vera Cruz did not lead us on to further seizures of territory and warlike acts is only to be explained on the surprising ground that so definite a step was taken with no relation to subsequent policy. That the formidable expedition under General Pershing—an army column thrown far into Mexico—has not led to war on a larger and more bloody scale can hardly be due to foresight at Washington. It is almost inconceivable that any President could have so mismanaged affairs as to have forced us into a European war when both sides were so anxious to maintain our good will. Yet, in considerable parts of the country the most convincing campaign argument is the one that was adopted by the National Committee in the phrase: "He kept us out of war." We Americans have no quarrel with any country, and we wish all men of all nations peace and prosperity. How, then, could we be dragged into war except through our own shocking

mismanagement, at a time when no nation on earth is willing to have war with us, and when none has even thought of denying us any rights that we chose to assert?

*All Things
to All Men* Not to criticize but rather to analyze, we ask our readers to note the fact that the chief triumph of the Democratic campaign lies in its plan of shaping a variety of issues, in such a way as to cause one to obscure the other, and with a view to appealing on different grounds to different groups and classes. The dread of war and the love of comfortable prosperity are feelings by no means to be despised. In view of the disasters of Europe, our American States may well prize their immunity thus far from such terrors. Thus the appeal to the pacifists is good politics. The supposed antagonism of the German sympathizers is counted upon to win the vote of many whose hearts are with Belgium, France, and England. On the other hand, the recent curt notes to England and the Allies are expected by some of the campaign managers to win pro-German votes for Wilson at a time when Hughes and Roosevelt are mentioning the *Lusitania* in an irritating fashion. Many lines of argument are used to win the farmer vote for Wilson by showing that Hughes is the candidate of Wall Street and "the interests," while the present Administration is fighting the people's battle against the money power and the trusts.

Nothing, however, has equaled in adroitness the appeal to the labor vote based upon the two words "eight hours." There is not the slightest reason in the world to regard Mr. Wilson as more favorable to an eight-hour day or to the amelioration of labor conditions than Mr. Hughes. Mr. Wilson's record is that of one who had strongly opposed the national child labor legislation, which at the last moment of the recent session he brought into existence by a swift and brilliant change of view and policy, for which we are glad to accord him praise. The Eight-Hour Law for the unions operating railroad trains had never been proposed or advocated by anyone, least of all by President Wilson. It was as unexpected as if Mr. Wilson had suddenly demanded that Congress pass a law giving all cooks fifty dollars a month and the "basic" eight-hour day, while ignoring waitresses and chambermaids. The facts were that the best-paid and best-organized men in the railway service believed that conditions

were ripe for forcing the railroads to give them a large increase in pay. The period of idle cars and slack business was at an end; the country's traffic was straining transportation facilities; and a league of the locomotive engineers, firemen, conductors, and trainmen of all the roads in the country to strike simultaneously was a threat against the entire public rather than against railway managers.

The Workers' Demands Since the argument of the brotherhoods lay in their supposed ability to hold up the business of the entire country, and since their demand was purely arbitrary, there was nothing in the nature of the case which could have prevented their demanding a six-hour basic day, instead of one of some other length. The miners of the country are now undertaking to secure a seven-hour day, and they have our sympathy and best wishes. The public has cheerfully paid a little more for coal in recent years, because the lot of miners was being alleviated. There are many well-informed people who think that railroad trainmen, as compared with most workers, are fortunate as regards both wages and conditions of labor. With compact organization, these railroad brotherhoods have been able to secure constant advances, and they have been the great champions of the principle of arbitration. In their latest and most sweeping demand, they refused arbitration when the railway companies offered it, and they were obdurate, according to the President of the United States, even when he urged them, offering to appoint all the arbitrators himself.

How Mr. Wilson Responded Curiously enough, it was President Wilson who seemed to be the person most disturbed over the prospect of the great strike. He rushed to Congress, asking to have a law passed which would compel the railway employers to pay these men on the eight-hour basis after January 1, as much as they now pay on the ten-hour basis. And he put every pressure upon Congress to pass this law by Saturday night, while he signed it on Sunday, because the four masterful chiefs of the brotherhoods would not postpone for a moment the strike that they were going to precipitate Monday morning. Mr. Wilson all his life has been a critical publicist who has not hesitated to say what he thought of certain kinds of legislative and executive action. There is not in the United States any man, it is rea-

"Eight Hours" and the Labor Vote



Photograph by American Press Association

PRESIDENT WILSON—FROM A RECENT PHOTOGRAPH AT SHADOW LAWN, HIS SUMMER HOME AT LONG BRANCH, NEW JERSEY

sonable to say, who—if in his accustomed place as observer and critic he had looked on at this Congressional performance—would have excoriated the surrender with such wealth and brilliancy of denunciation as Woodrow Wilson himself.

A Question of Methods

It is not a question of concern for the finances of the railroad companies. They will find means to protect their own interests in what is, after all, in the long run a land of justice and fair play. Nor has anybody grudged to the railroad trainmen as good wages as they can obtain. It will be only too short a time within which they will have to learn that the principles of demand and supply in the labor market can not pass them by as an exempt class, favored beyond other people. They are a manly lot of men, and we are

sure it goes against their grain to be sneered at as having been taken under the wing of the Government as if they were different from ordinary men in the economic world. The shocking thing is that even in the face of a Presidential campaign their strike threats could scare the Government of the United States. They themselves were—as we are informed—wholly astonished. The President had only to remind the brotherhood chiefs of their own arbitration record, and to stand squarely against hold-ups and in favor of just methods. There would have been no strike; there would assuredly have been arbitration; and the President would have been commended for his obviously right course. There ought to be no railroad strikes; and in this case a strike would have been inexcusable. But the preventive used was worse than strikes.

The "Politics" of the Affair

As we explained last month, this bill does not shorten the hours of railroad freight-train workers, but provides a different basis for reckoning wages. At present they obtain no overtime pay if they make their daily run within ten hours. The new law reckons overtime if they do not finish the day within eight hours. At the first blush, the indignant railway managers naturally gave out extreme figures to show the immense burden the new law would throw upon them. Instantly the Democratic campaign managers, together with certain labor leaders, undertook to make it appear that the great railroad barons, being part and parcel of the Wall Street money power, were solidly supporting Hughes, while Wilson, "the friend of labor," had the courage to stand as the heroic champion of the common wage-earner. The more Mr. Hughes pointed out the impropriety of the method by which the railroad labor bill had been passed, the better the Democratic campaign managers were pleased; because Labor has more votes than Capital, and they were having the wedge driven just where they wanted it. Fortunately, the seeming unity of the railway presidents was broken by Judge Lovett, now head of the Harriman system, himself a lifelong Texas Democrat and railroad lawyer, who came out for President Wilson on general principles.

A Railroad Apologist for Wilson

Mr. Lovett was followed by that wise and genial philosopher, Mr. F. D. Underwood, president of the Erie system, who gave out to the press on October 15 an extended interview containing his reasons for supporting President Wilson. In the matter of the railroad brotherhoods, Mr. Underwood refuses to believe that "President Wilson played politics." "I once stated," says Mr. Underwood, "and now reaffirm, that my opinion is that he used his best judgment in doing as he did. No one could fairly accuse him of playing politics, and while my views did not correspond with his, I concede that his motives were honest." At length Mr. Underwood proceeds to his explanation of it all in the following words: "*The misrepresentations of the brotherhoods, which he mistook for truth, moved him to action.*" It is not Mr. Underwood's way to impugn motives—not even those of politicians at election time. But he makes the President ride on the other horn of a dilemma, for he disparages the Presidential intelligence. How is it that with Mr. Underwood himself,

and all the other railway presidents, earnestly explaining the matter to President Wilson at the time, our chief executive should become the victim of "misrepresentations" on the part of such excellent and honest labor leaders as Stone, Garretson, Carter, and Lee?

Nobody "Misrepresented"

It does not seem to us that the brotherhoods misrepresented, on the one hand, or that the railway presidents misrepresented on the other. Nor does it seem to us that any intelligent public man at Washington failed to understand, or "mistook for truth" anything that was erroneous in the claims or statements of either side. For thirty years Mr. Wilson has shown a keen intelligence in analyzing and appraising precisely such episodes. Nothing could be farther from the methods that he taught his students to employ in political criticism than lack of entire frankness in discussing such a matter. And he would demand it, even when Mr. Wilson himself happens to be the President in the case, instead of being, as formerly, the outside critic. He will be more amused than comforted by Mr. Underwood's assurance to the public that Wilson meant well but was fooled by the labor leaders.

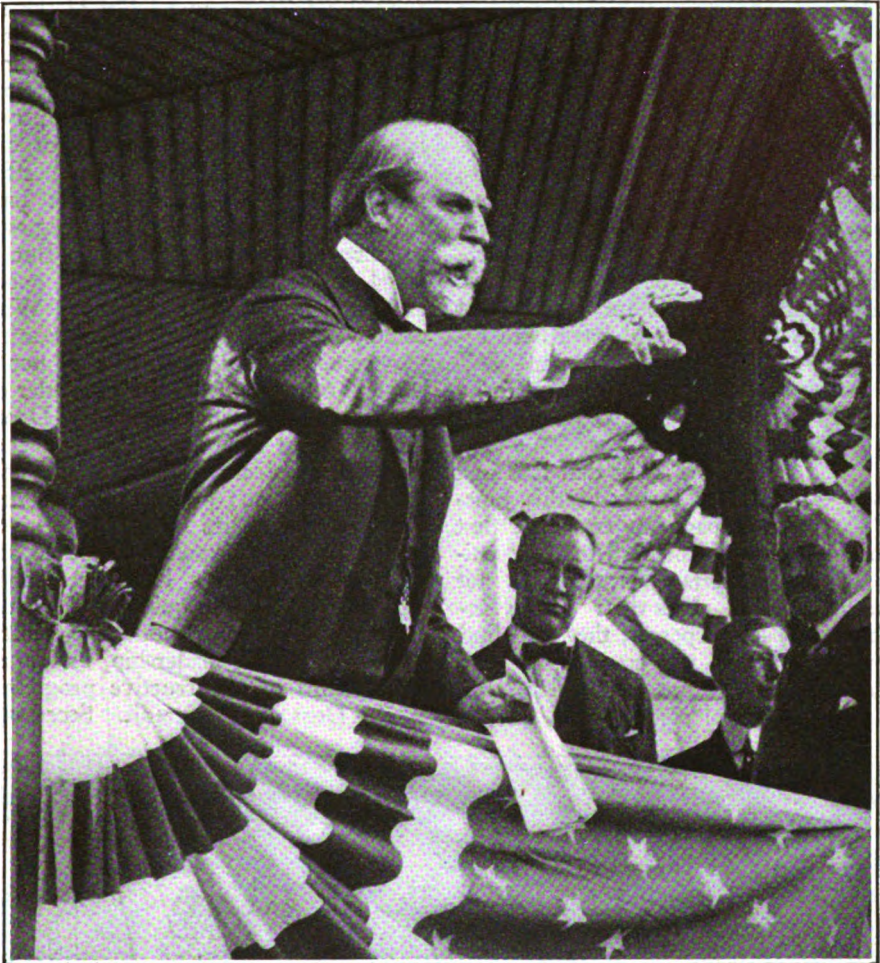
The Heart of the Issue

We are thoroughly glad the brotherhoods have not embarked upon their strike; for such a method would have done them great harm



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DR. WILSON OPERATING ON "ARBITRATION"
From the *Tribune* (Chicago)



Photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

A CHARACTERISTIC PHOTOGRAPH OF HON. CHARLES E. HUGHES IN HIS CAMPAIGN FOR THE PRESIDENCY

and would also have inconvenienced the public. There is a welcome tendency towards shorter hours of labor, which this episode at least does something to advertise. In due time the railway labor claims will find adjustment on right grounds and by proper methods. What interests us all now is the way in which a false issue is being used for political advantage. The campaign workers will naturally play the issue for all it is worth, and nobody will blame them. But labor-union leaders know better; and in so far as their consciences and their intelligence govern them they must be a trifle uneasy.

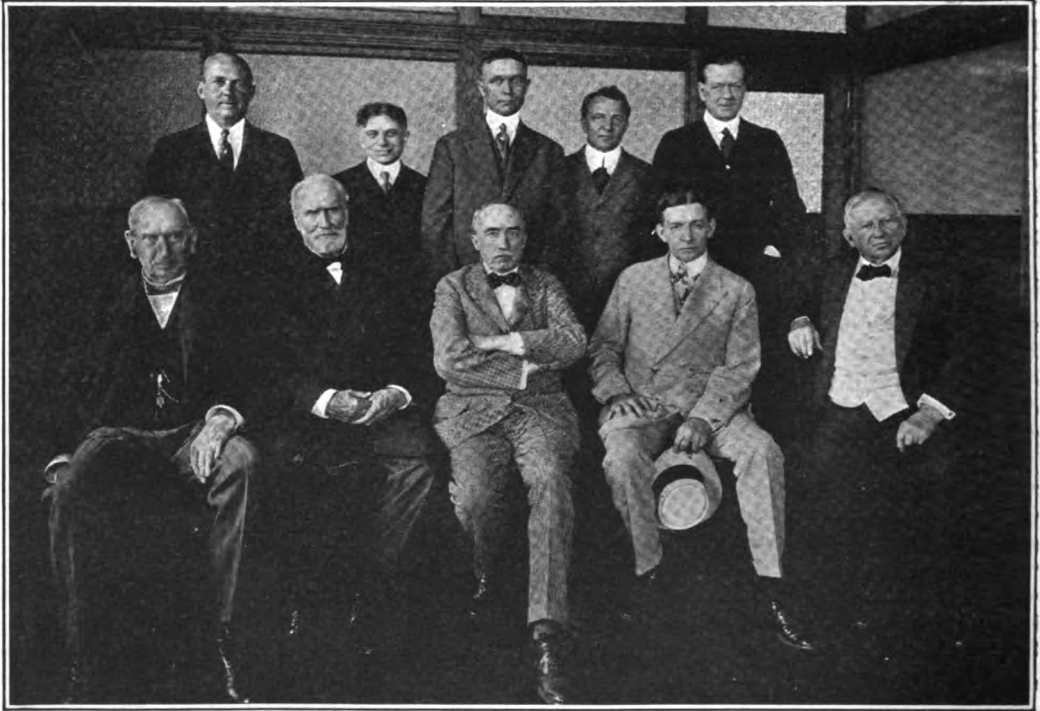
Two Men, and the Public
By the middle of November the American public will be making the best of the results, whichever way the election goes. Everyone who is intelligent knows that Mr. Hughes would

make a fine President. He is a strong executive, has made a great reputation as a judge in the interpretation of our laws bearing upon the forces of business and economic life, has a balanced and courageous mind, has immense capacity for hard work, is above petty and unworthy political actions, and represents a clean-cut devotion to American honor and American interest. If Mr. Wilson is elected for another term, he will be accepted as President of the whole country, and will only have to find clear and firm courses of action in order to add the unqualified approval of the discerning to the popularity he has won on the unsound plea that he is the champion of the "masses" as against the "classes." The contest is not between parties, nor is it even between rival candidates. If Wilson is defeated he will have defeated himself. The recent record

of the Republicans gives them no positive claim. They have had no policies as a party, any more than the Democrats have had. Mr. Wilson personally has had a four years' career of the most bewildering and incalculable activities. These will have won for him a variegated support, immense in its aggregate. It will have alienated and antagonized other elements also totaling large. It now seems likely that his supporters on November 7 will be more numerous than his opponents. A more logical and better-balanced contest would have been assured if the Republicans had nominated Colonel Roosevelt, though the result might have been equally uncertain.

Is This a "Good" Administration? There is one thing that it is just and proper to say at this juncture, in pages of comment that endeavor to be straightforward in their estimate of public matters, but that are not meant to be partisan. It is this: If the Republicans come back to power, they will find the Government and the country in very good shape. We are not in the least impressed by the Republican attacks on the

general efficiency and fidelity of the Administration. This, in our opinion, has been one of the very best Administrations—one of the freest from scandal and impropriety—in the entire history of the country. We have not approved, in general, of the handling of diplomatic and foreign affairs by the Wilson Administration. It has been regrettably unsuccessful in dealing with the problem of military defense. But it has acted, even in such matters, in good faith and according to its best lights. When one comes to the normal work of the executive departments, the Administration is not perfect but it is commendable. Its surrender of civil-service reform principles to the Democratic politicians in some quarters is not consistent with President Wilson's academic record on this question; but we do not find that the civil service has been grossly given over to the party spoilsmen. Great departments and special bureaus have been admirably carried on. In the quiet, efficient work of Secretary Houston, American agriculture has found competent leadership, and a remarkable record of constructive progress stands to the Department's credit. Secretary Lane



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MEMBERS OF THE REPUBLICAN ADVISORY CAMPAIGN COMMITTEE, AS RECENTLY PHOTOGRAPHED AT THE NEW YORK HEADQUARTERS

(Standing, from left to right: Governor Beeckman of Rhode Island, Victor Rosewater of Nebraska, Ex-Governor Eberhart of Minnesota, Raymond Robbins of Illinois and Frank Hitchcock. Seated, also from left to right: Hon. Theodore E. Burton of Ohio, Hon. James Wilson of Iowa, National Chairman William R. Willcox of New York, Charles G. Dawes of Chicago, and John Wanamaker of Philadelphia and New York)

has been a fine administrator, and has in legislation and in practical work shown himself a statesman in the best sense. The Post-Office Department has some hard problems on its hands, but it has been working upon them in good faith, and certainly, though Mr. Burleson is a trained politician, he has not made anything like such glaring political use of his Department as has more than one of his Republican predecessors. The Treasury Department under Mr. McAdoo has had to face financial problems in an unexampled period, and it is surprising that the things done should have been so fully acquiesced in, and should have aroused so little of partisan opposition. The Department of Justice does not seem to have been bringing invidious prosecutions, nor to have been protecting some corporations while assailing others. Brother Daniels as Secretary of the Navy has been heavily pounded, but Mr. Baker as Secretary of War is personally admired by Republicans. And even Mr. Daniels seems to bear up, and to live down many of the criticisms of those who have not thought him a competent head of the Navy Department.

Something to Build Upon — If a Republican Congress should come in, it could go forward upon the existing basis. It

would have to make some tariff changes, but it would find the Underwood Tariff a better basic line than the old Payne-Aldrich Tariff, from which to deal with one schedule after another. The President has not yet appointed the Tariff Commission which the new law authorizes; but it is supposed that the members will be practical and scientific, rather than partisans or the devotees of a preconceived theory. Certainly the Republicans will not wish to undo the Federal Reserve Act or the Rural Credits Act, although they may find occasion to make some amendments in detail. Nor is it to be thought for a moment that the Republicans would undo the constructive work which has given us the Federal Trade Commission, with its useful function of examining into alleged restraints of trade and supposed monopolies. Surely the Republicans would not repeal the federal Child Labor Act, nor would they lay a finger upon the new scheme which apportions money to the States for the building of good roads. They would be obliged to tear up the Hay military bill,



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CHAIRMAN VANCE McCORMICK OF THE DEMOCRATIC NATIONAL COMMITTEE (ON THE LEFT) AND MR. JOSEPH P. TUMULTY, SECRETARY TO THE PRESIDENT

(Mr. Tumulty is one of the chief advisers in the campaign, and the picture was taken at a recent Long Branch conference)

and to find some way of providing for the general training of young citizens upon the Swiss, Dutch, or Australian model. But as respects this matter the whole country has had to emerge from its dense ignorance, and to learn common sense. Republicans and Democrats alike have until lately failed to understand that our military system is wrong in every fundamental respect. It can only be said that the Republicans now seem to understand the subject a very little better than the Democrats.

As to an Invidious Word — In respect to certain controversies of the past year or two, there is a word that we have never used in this magazine nor allowed to be used. We have never discoursed about the "hyphen" nor called any group of our fellow citizens "hyphenates." The thing has been so silly as to be unworthy of serious attention. We have a great many men of Hungarian origin here, who are thoroughly good Americans but are sympathetically concerned for Magyar destinies. We have no idea whether their Magyar sympathies will influence their voting here, or whether they can find reason for supporting Hughes rather than Wilson. We have a large and admirable body of citizens whose parents or grandparents have come from Germany. We have not very many relatively who have come from Germany themselves, because in recent years Germany has been able to employ all of its sons in its growing industries. According to our best information and be-



PREPAREDNESS

SOUTH AMERICA: "What kind of a tree is that, Uncle?"

UNCLE SAM: "That is a very dangerous kind of thorn, which nowadays must be cultivated by all of us."

From *Sucesos* (Valparaiso, Chile)

lief, the great body of Americans of German origin have been firm in their devotion to the United States, even when sympathizing with the cause of the Central Powers rather than with the cause of the British and Russian Empires. We have a great body of excellent citizens of Jewish faith who hate the Russian Government because of its bad treatment of Jews. We have no idea whether their Jewish sympathies incline them to go with Brandeis and Morgenthau in support of Mr. Wilson, or with Oscar Straus and many others in support of Mr. Hughes. They are entitled to choose for themselves.

It happens that this country has become, through the British control of the sea lanes, the great reservoir of food supplies, war munitions, and all sorts of material for the Allies. The vastness of the trade thus developed has practically committed our entire financial and industrial system to an association with the policies of the British Government that for working purposes is quite as intimate as that of Britain with the industrial system of Canada. We have no fears whatever for the Americanism of the groups of people sneered at as "hyphenates," whether they have come originally from England, France, Ireland, Germany, Poland, Russia, Italy, or

the Balkan States. The only people for whose Americanism we have had some anxiety are those people of many generations of American blood who seem to have cared more for their opportunities to make money out of the European War than for the dignity and honor of our own country. It is our judgment that all of the belligerent European countries have behaved in the main quite admirably toward us. And to imagine that large bodies of Americans of recent foreign origin have been disloyal to the land of their adoption is ridiculous. Nothing could so have intensified their grateful loyalty to America as their freedom here from the calamities that afflict Europe.

Electing United States Senators For the first time in a Presidential year, the voters are choosing United States Senators by direct popular action. Two years ago the new method came into effect, and one-third of the Senators were elected in their States by popular vote. It is not yet certain whether the new system does or does not bring stronger men to the front than the old system. Except for party machines, the old system might have been preferable. As things are in our political life, the new system in our opinion is an improvement. We present herewith the names of the men who have been duly nominated and are running for the Senate on the Democratic and Republican tickets in thirty-two States. Indiana will elect two men, because of a vacancy caused by the death of Senator Shively. Maine acted in the September election, and chose two Republicans—Messrs. Frederick Hale and Bert M. Fernald. The death of Senator Burleigh made necessary the filling of both seats from Maine. Arkansas would not vote for a Senator this year but for the death of Senator Clarke. Our readers will remember that there are ninety-six Senate seats, two from each of forty-eight States, and that in the regular order of things thirty-two Senators are elected every two years.

Old and New Men in the Senate It will be noted in the list given that there are no Republican nominees for the Senate in Florida, Mississippi, Texas, and Virginia. In a number of the Southern States the real contest is in the Democratic primaries, nomination being equivalent to election. Of the thirty-two Democrats in the list, thirteen are already Senators and are seeking reelection. Of the twenty-eight Republicans in the list, eleven are already Senators. If, therefore,

incumbents should all hold their seats—and most of them seem likely to do so—twenty-four experienced men would continue in the chamber as a result of this election, and eight new men would appear. One of these new men is almost certain to be Governor Hiram Johnson, of California. Another is equally sure to be the Hon. Frank B. Kellogg, of Minnesota. The State of New York will send a new man, and he will be either Mr. McCombs, four years ago chairman of the Democratic National Committee, or Mr. Calder, a former Brooklyn Congressman. Pennsylvania will elect Mr. Knox, now in private life but formerly a Senator. The assumption, of course, that incumbents will hold their seats does not apply to all the States. It seems likely that Mr. Myron T. Herrick will beat Senator Pomerene in Ohio. It is quite possible that New and Watson may beat Kern and Taggart in Indiana. It does not seem probable that the Republicans will gain control of the Senate, although they may wipe out the Democratic majority in the House of Representatives. The Senate is changed more gradually—a wise system.

*As to the
Campaign*

After the election in Maine in September, Republican hopes were high, and the chances of Hughes seemed better than those of Wilson. As we have often pointed out, however, Wilson had many advantages in the fact that he was in power and could make issues as he went along to suit emergencies. Much was done at Washington in the closing days of Congress to improve Wilson's chances, the climax being reached in the Railroad Eight-Hour Law. Mr. Wilson has the benefit, furthermore, of great cleverness and audacity in the campaign methods that have been used to give effect to this "friend-of-the-laboring-man" argument, and the "kept-us-out-of-war" slogan. This has not been a picturesque campaign, of torch-light processions and old-fashioned demonstrations. It has been a campaign of argument, chiefly on the one point whether somebody else could have managed affairs better than Wilson has done. The burden of proof in such cases must lie with those who attack; and Mr. Wilson's advantage of position has been used to the utmost by a very capable, zealous, and loyal

CANDIDATES FOR THE UNITED STATES SENATE

STATE	DEMOCRAT	REPUBLICAN
Arizona.....	*Henry F. Ashurst	Joseph H. Kibbey
Arkansas.....	Justice W. F. Kirby	Harmon L. Rammel
California.....	George S. Patton	Gov. Hiram Johnson
Connecticut....	Homer S. Cummings	*George P. McLean
Delaware.....	Josiah O. Wolcott	*Henry A. du Pont
Florida.....	Gov. Park Trammell	(none)
Indiana.....	*John W. Kern	Harry S. New
	*Thomas Taggart	James E. Watson
Maryland.....	Cong. David J. Lewis	Dr. Joseph Irwin France
Massachusetts..	John F. Fitzgerald	*Henry Cabot Lodge
Michigan.....	Lawrence Price	*Charles E. Townsend
Minnesota.....	Daniel W. Lawlor	Frank B. Kellogg
Mississippi.....	*John Sharp Williams	(none)
Missouri.....	*James A. Reed	Walter S. Dickey
Montana.....	*Henry L. Myers	Charles N. Pray
Nebraska.....	*Gilbert M. Hitchcock	Ex-Cong. John L. Kennedy
Nevada.....	*Key Pittman	Samuel Platt
New Jersey....	*James E. Martine	Joseph S. Frelinghuysen
New Mexico....	Andrieus A. Jones	Frank A. Hubbell
New York.....	William F. McCombs	Ex-Cong. William M. Calder
North Dakota..	Ex-Gov. John Burke	*Porter J. McCumber
Ohio.....	*Atlee Pomerene	Ex-Gov. Myron T. Herrick
Pennsylvania...	Ellis L. Orvis	Philander C. Knox
Rhode Island..	Peter Goellet Gerry	*Henry F. Lippitt
Tennessee.....	Cong. Kenneth D. McKellar	Ben W. Hooper
Texas.....	*Charles A. Culberson	(none)
Utah.....	Ex-Cong. William H. King	*George Sutherland
Vermont.....	Oscar C. Miller	*Carroll S. Page
Virginia.....	*Claude A. Swanson	(none)
Washington....	Ex-Sen. George Turner	*Miles Poindexter
West Virginia..	*William E. Chilton	Cong. Howard Sutherland
Wisconsin.....	William F. Wolfe	*Robert M. La Follette
Wyoming.....	Gov. John B. Kendrick	*Clarence D. Clark

* Incumbent.

campaign organization. The Republican attack could not be made entirely coherent; and it has been a question whether some of the things said and done have not hurt more than they have helped. After all, the country knows that it can have Mr. Hughes if it wants him; and Mr. Wilson for his part stands or falls on his record. The gambling chances for Hughes in September were regarded by betting men as somewhat more favorable than in October. But only the uninformed attach much importance to the ordinary reports of the betting odds.

*Rival Lead
Pencils*

Late in October, the Democratic National Committee, in response to our request, assured us that they were confident of carrying thirty States with a total electoral vote of 339. This would leave to the Republicans a possible eighteen States with a total electoral vote of 192. Their claim includes all the usual Southern States, with Maryland, Delaware, West Virginia, Kentucky, and Missouri. They claim Colorado and also Arizona, but put New Mexico in the doubtful list. They claim Washington, Idaho, and Montana, putting California and Oregon in the doubtful list. They claim Nevada, assigning Utah to the doubtful. They claim Ohio and Indiana, also Wisconsin, putting Illinois and Minnesota in the doubtful list. They claim Nebraska and Oklahoma, conceding Kansas to the Republicans. They claim New York and New Jersey, also Connecticut, while putting Massachusetts in the doubtful list. They put both North Dakota and South Dakota in the list of States possibly Democratic, but doubtful. Thus, besides the thirty that they fully claim, they mark ten more as "possibly Democratic," leaving only eight States which they concede to Hughes and the Republicans. These eight are Maine, Vermont, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, Iowa, Kansas, and Wyoming. As for the Republicans, they concede the so-called "solid South" from the start, and claim the rest of the country as good fighting ground. It is to be borne in mind that in all Presidential elections both sides claim to the very last that they will carry New York, Ohio, and Indiana. Both sides also usually claim Illinois. It is a surprise to us that Illinois is put in the doubtful list by our informants at Democratic headquarters. Their chances in that State seem to insiders of the Republican camp to be better than in some of the other States (Ohio and Indiana, for instance) positively claimed for Wilson.

*Government
Business*

The existing (Sixty-fourth) Congress will meet for its closing session on December 4. If nothing unusual arises to occupy its attention, its chief concern will be with the appropriation bills for the fiscal year beginning with the first of next July. President Wilson has promised to bring forward as unfinished business the pending proposal to increase the membership of the Interstate Commerce Commission, and his other plans for enabling the railroads to pass on to the public the burden due to the Eight-Hour Law. He has already appointed as members of the commission of three which is to observe the working of that act General Goethals, of Panama fame, Mr. Clark, of the Interstate Commerce Commission (formerly chief of the Brotherhood of Conductors), and Mr. Rublee (whose appointment to the Trade Commission was rejected by the Senate). These are excellent men of superior qualifications. They are not to act as arbitrators or judges, but merely to report how in their opinion the law bears practically upon the interests of the parties concerned. As the result of efforts of an unofficial kind, organized and led by Mr. Howard Coffin, Congress provided for a Council of National Defense at the recent session, and the President has named an advisory board of seven men. These are Mr. Daniel Willard, of Baltimore; Mr. Samuel Gompers, of Washington; Dr. F. H. Martin, of Chicago; Mr. Howard E. Coffin, of Detroit; Mr. B. Baruch, of New York; Dr. Hollis Godfrey, of Philadelphia; and Mr. Julius Rosenwald, of Chicago. They will be invaluable in a movement which a future number of this REVIEW will more fully describe.

*A Public
Ownership
Inquiry*

Before the strike crisis had led so unexpectedly to the passage of the Railroad Eight-Hour Law, Congress had provided for a very important investigation of the whole subject of railway regulation and control. The inquiry is to be carried on under the chairmanship of Senator Newlands by a joint Congressional committee of ten. Federal incorporation, government ownership of railroads and other public utilities, and all the major questions and problems of railway and telegraph operation in their relationships to the Government and the public, are to be reported upon. The hearings, it is announced, will begin on November 20. It is not going to be an easy task to produce a valuable and well-digested report upon these subjects.

*More
Foreign Loans
Offered Here*

In the middle of October it became known that Great Britain would before long float a new loan in the United States to help pay for the stupendous importations from this country of war material and food-stuffs. It is understood that the new borrowing will be much after the fashion of the last, by which \$250,000,000 was secured in America for Great Britain by pledging the bonds of various foreign countries and bonds and stocks of American corporations. It will be remembered that Great Britain's first and largest loan, floated here through the issuance of the so-called Anglo-French bonds, was arranged without any pledging of collateral or security other than the joint promise to pay of the Kingdom of Great Britain and the Republic of France. The bonds representing this loan, running for five years and drawing 5 per cent. interest, have never sold since the dissolution of the underwriting syndicate for more than 96, as against the issuing price of 98. The second, secured loan of \$250,000,000 has, on the other hand, promptly gone to a slight premium, the market price of the bonds now being $99\frac{1}{2}$ as against an issuing price of 99. It is fairly obvious that in order to tempt the American investor it is now, and until the end of the war will be, necessary to secure foreign loans floated in the United States with the pledge of adequate specific collateral. Within the past month the American public has also subscribed for a loan of \$50,000,000 to the City of Paris, this being the first time that city has borrowed outside of France. The American managers of this 6 per cent. loan, which was offered on terms to net the investor about $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., explained that the funds were to be used to increase the hospital facilities of the City of Paris, to build orphan asylums, ease the lot of widows of soldiers, maintain the unemployed, and aid the thousands of refugees who have flocked to the French metropolis.

*Our Securities
Sold Back
by Europe*

The transactions noted above represent one of the devices by which warring Europe is struggling to settle the unheard-of trade balance against her and in our favor. It looks now as if this trade balance for the year 1916,—being the excess value of our goods exported to Europe over those imported from Europe,—would be in the neighborhood of three billion dollars. A second device to make up this great gap between the value

of goods purchased by Europe and her goods sold to us is the resale here of stocks and bonds of American railways and industrial concerns held by European investors. President L. F. Loree, of the Delaware and Hudson Railroad Company, has recently made a report on the volume of these operations which, while not pretending to be exact, is certainly more authoritative and valuable than any other estimate that has appeared. It puts the par value of American railway securities held abroad on January 31, 1915, at \$2,700,000,000, and finds that this aggregate had been in eighteen months, on July 31 last, reduced to \$1,400,000,000.

*\$300,000,000
Industrials
Also Returned*

Practically all of the \$1,300,000,000 of railway securities shown to have been sold during this period came from Europe; they have been offered persistently on the American market ever since the war began. Mr. Loree followed a careful and scientific plan in making his calculation as to railroad stocks and bonds, and nothing so accurate has been done in the matter of industrial securities; but by using the ratio of foreign-held railway securities to industrials generally accepted by bankers, 4 to 1, it is estimated that of the \$675,000,000 of the latter class of securities held abroad in the winter of 1915 at least \$300,000,000 have been resold to us. This brings the total liquidation of American securities during the last eighteen months to more than \$1,500,000,000. It is practically certain that the exact figure exceeds this, as many important European holders of American stocks and bonds arrange that they appear currently as the property of American representatives.

*Our Flood of
Gold*

A third recourse of Europe in settling her monstrous current debt to us for war supplies is the sending of gold in part payment, and our receipts of the precious metal from abroad have in the past two years greatly exceeded any other like period in our history. At the recent convention of the American Bankers' Association, Director of the Mint Von Engelken prophesied that this stream of gold to America will continue in huge volume. He declared that after studying the figures given him by the financial agents of the Allies, he looked for additional imports of \$400,000,000 in gold before we stopped melting up and turning into American money the English sovereigns and French 20-franc pieces now pouring in on us. Already the gold in the

United States has risen to \$24.80 per capita, as against only \$8.40 twenty years ago, when Mr. Bryan was advocating bimetalism on the 16-to-1 basis.

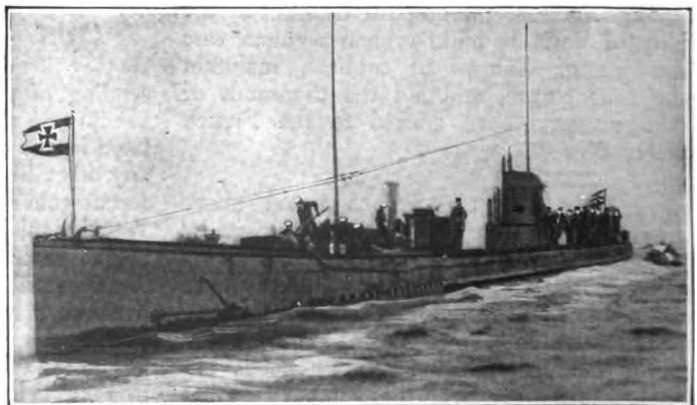
Prices Mount Skyward The inevitable results of this gold inflation are rapidly rising prices for commodities and over-speculation in industry and finance. The cost of living in the United States has gone up over 30 per cent. since the war began, and is still going up, in the last month or two with accelerated rapidity. In Europe, of course, the rise has been even greater. In Germany and Austria the cost of food has increased more than 100 per cent. since the war began; in Great Britain the rise has been about 65 per cent.; in Norway 61 per cent.; Denmark 46 per cent.; Switzerland 41 per cent., and Italy 33 per cent. In October, "spot" wheat sold in New York at \$2.00 a bushel, against a price of \$1.19 a year ago. Corn has risen within the year from 77¾ cents to \$1.04½; flour from \$5.75 to \$8.80; pork from \$17.00 per barrel to \$30.50; and sugar from 5.15 cents to 7.25 per pound.

Highest Cotton Prices Since the Civil War But the most spectacular advance in an important commodity in the United States has come on the Cotton Exchange. On October 18 the price reached 19 cents, apparently unaided by organized speculative maneuvers. This is the highest price the Southern planters have received for cotton since Civil War days. It compares with five and a fraction cents in the dark period of the autumn of 1914. The Government's latest estimate of the 1916 crop is 11,600,000 bales; about 3,000,000 bales were carried over from last year, making less than 15,000,000 bales to supply the world's demands during 1917. Not only is domestic consumption large, insistent, and increasing, but export demands are growing every month, so that there will be practically no reserve. It must not be forgotten, too, that Germany and Austria at the end of next year will be about 6,000,000 bales behind their normal needs.

Industrials Pass the Railroads Average steel prices per ton have risen from \$29.94 in January, 1915, to

\$63.42 in October, 1916. The earnings of the great steel concerns are almost unbelievable. It is generally estimated that the United States Steel Corporation will show net earnings for the calendar year of about \$360,000,000. With such stimulating figures at hand, Wall Street has been seething with excitement and activity. Up to October 11, when the news of the *U-53*'s exploits brought a temporary interruption, the Exchange reported sales in excess of a million shares on each of twenty-five successive days. The great activity and the great advances in price were in the industrials. Last year, for the first time, the average price of industrial stocks rose higher than the average price of railroad stocks, and many economists of the day expect that the railroads will never again catch up in the estimation of the investing public. The reason for such an opinion is easy to see. The huge war-time inflation of the gold supply, the consequent great increases in the prices of commodities which the railroads must purchase, including labor, make the railroads' cost of furnishing transportation to their customers greater and greater every month. Practically everything is free to rise in price, and is rising, except what the railroads have to sell to their customers. There the artificial restraint of Government regulation, exercised through the Interstate Commerce Commission, holds down the price of what the railroad has to sell, in spite of all increases in the costs of producing it.

A Submarine Off Our Coast On Saturday, October 7, the German submarine *U-53* came into the harbor at Newport, R. I., remained three hours, and sailed with-



Photograph by American Press Association

THE GERMAN SUBMARINE U-53

(As photographed at Newport on October 7)

out leaving any hint as to her destination. Her officers made inquiries concerning the commercial submarine *Bremen*, long overdue at an American port, and left it to be inferred that their sole reason for putting into Newport was to get possible news of that vessel. The next day, Sunday, the *U-53* sent to the bottom five ships off Nantucket Light. Three of these ships were British, one was Norwegian, and the fifth was of Dutch registry. It appears that all of the ships were duly warned and that all on board had time to get off in boats. No lives were lost. The United States Government saw no cause for protest against the action of the *U-53's* commander. The sinking of all the ships took place outside the three-mile limit. One of the British vessels—the *Stephano*—was a passenger liner plying between Halifax and New York. She had women and children among her passengers. These were brought to Newport by the United States destroyer squadron in response to wireless calls. Whether there was a violation of neutrality in the sinking of the Norwegian and the Dutch ship depends altogether on the nature of their cargoes. It is presumed that Germany will contend that at least portions of them were contraband. On the whole, the incident, though highly sensational, has developed no new diplomatic crisis and has not involved the United States in any way in the European conflict. Meanwhile, the *Bremen* has been given up as lost.

Japan's
New
Premier

Early last month Marquis Okuma resigned as Premier of Japan and the Emperor at once requested Field-Marshal Count Terauchi, former Governor-General of Korea, to organize a cabinet. The fact that Count Terauchi had been a soldier all his life was seized upon by many writers for the press as presumptive evidence that his call to the Premiership meant the ascendancy of the extreme militarist and jingo elements in Japanese politics. So far as domestic policy is concerned, the Okuma ministry had evidently become weak, as tested by Parliamentary votes; but whether the accession of Count Terauchi means any reactionary change in foreign policy remains to be seen. It should not be assumed, without clear proof, that the new Premier is heading a "war party," as some American newspapers have intimated. At any rate, there is no reason to look for an immediate change in the attitude of Japan towards America.



Photo by American Press Association

FIELD MARSHAL TERAUCHI, NEW JAPANESE PRIME MINISTER, SUCCEEDING COUNT OKUMA

The
Mexican
Situation

At the beginning of October the Mexican-American Joint Commission transferred its sessions from New London to Atlantic City. The Mexican commissioners made the proposed arrangement for the patrol of the American border by Mexican Constitutionalist forces in place of United States troops the basis of a plea for financial assistance from Uncle Sam. The details of this plan for border control were discussed at length, but no conclusion was announced. The Mexican commissioners made it clear that further interference by the United States in Mexico's internal politics would be resented. It was announced on October 18 that elections for a President of the Mexican Republic and also for members of the national Congress would be held in January or February, 1917, so that in all probability a President will take office at Mexico City before the next President of the United States is inaugurated at Washington. Meanwhile, President Wilson has stated that National Guard troops are still needed on the border, but some of the regiments from Northern States have already been released from duty there. It seems understood that the Pershing troops are to be withdrawn soon from Mexican soil.



A CONFERENCE OF ANGLO-FRENCH WAR CHIEFS

(From left to right: M. Thomas, French Minister of Munitions; General Sir Douglas Haig; General Joffre; and Mr. Lloyd George, British Minister of War)

*The War
as Winter
Approaches*

The great war goes on with unabated fury. Mr. Lloyd George, now the most potent of British leaders, serves notice that the fight must be to a finish and that peace mediators from outside will not be welcome. Ambassador Gerard's return to New York from Berlin on a vacation proved to have no bearing upon peace proposals. The larger recent events in the war itself are graphically recounted for our readers in this number by Mr. Simonds. When Rumania and Russia from the north, and General Sarrail's great Allied army from the Salonica base, were supposed to have Bulgaria hopelessly between the upper and the nether millstones, the Germans gave another exhibition of their superior military capacity and energy. It seems likely that Bulgaria is now safe for the winter, and that the connection between the Teutonic empires and Turkey can not be broken earlier than next summer. French strength under Joffre's guidance shows no sign of weakening. The British Empire, in spite of acrimonious family discussion over details, is supporting the war with ever-developing resources of material and men. At least another year of war is commonly predicted. It is evident that "economic" exhaustion cannot end the struggle quickly. Each side can carry on agriculture and business, and pay war bills out of current earnings. Both British and German finance is sound.

*Greece
In Turmoil*

The plight of Greece has grown more desperate and pitiful with each succeeding episode since Great Britain and France landed troops at Salonica just a year ago. The Greeks are naturally pro-Ally, but for two years their pro-German King and Queen have kept them out of the war despite the efforts of Venizelos. With that brilliant statesman out of the Premiership, the Entente Powers have brought increasing pressure to bear upon King Constantine and upon the Greek leaders who have reluctantly accepted the hopeless task of forming and maintaining a satisfactory ministry. Demands followed upon demands until last month Greece was made to turn over her entire fleet to the British and French, withdrawing her own sailors. The exact purpose of the Allies remains a mystery; but it is evident that they are in danger of losing the sympathy of the Greek people. At the outbreak of the great war, Greece was in possession of new territory recently won from Turkey, and had further territorial aspirations. Now she has surrendered Salonica to the Allies, lost Kavala and hundreds of square miles of territory to the Bulgars, and seen Italy in possession of regions which had come within the dream of "greater Greece." Venizelos and his followers, despairing of forcing the King to enter the war, last month began a revolution against the Athens government, the ultimate success of which would seem likely. The attention of our readers is called to an article on Venizelos by a Greek writer, beginning on page 502 of this issue.

*The Europe
That Is at
Peace*

In the early months of the war it had seemed as if the small kingdoms in the north of Europe and the Swiss Republic in the south might almost immediately be drawn into the conflict. But Holland, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden remain neutral, while Turkey, Italy, Bulgaria, Rumania, and Greece—though farther removed from the chief battle lines—have drifted into the whirlpool. Even the distant and peace-loving United States has been nearer to war than those European neutrals which lie between one belligerent and another. Switzerland, entirely surrounded by war, has always had its French, German, and Italian elements and districts; yet we never hear of discord, of "hyphenism," or of pleas for rival nationalisms among the Swiss. As France remembered Alsace-Lorraine, and as Italy longed to redeem the Trentino and Trieste—so Denmark has not forgotten the

loss of Schleswig-Holstein to Germany, and Sweden remembers that Finland was taken away from her by Russia. But Denmark and Sweden remain neutral in the present conflict. The little kingdom of Holland, by leaning either to one side or to the other, could possibly have turned the scale, ended the war, and gained much for herself. She could even yet permit the great new army of Britain to cross Dutch soil and invade Germany without warning; or she could permit German soldiers to cross and invade England overnight from nearby Dutch ports and in Dutch vessels, protected by Germany's submarine navy. Either way the rewards would be great; but Holland has preferred to remain neutral and suffer undeserved humiliation on the high seas, from both sides.

*Scandinavia
United, Though
Humiliated*

Norway, Sweden, and Denmark have developed a spirit of co-operation in matters affecting their foreign affairs. During September, the Premiers and Foreign Ministers of these three Scandinavian kingdoms met at Christiania, Norway's capital, to develop measures for safeguarding their common interests. Earlier conferences had been held at Malmö, in Sweden, and at Copenhagen, the Danish capital. The diplomats have agreed to act in complete accord upon many matters affecting neutral rights and duties. There will be further conferences, as often as may be desirable. Great Britain's plan of rationing the Scandinavian countries and Holland seems destined to continue while the war lasts. In order to reduce to a minimum the likelihood that imports might ultimately reach Germany, the British Government has forbidden neutral countries to import more than normal amounts. Thus when the statisticians of Lord Robert Cecil (Britain's Minister of War Trade) discovered that one neutral had imported 50,000 tons of coffee when its normal imports should amount to 18,000 tons only, he refused to give assurances that further imports would escape a prize court.

*Prosperity as
Compensation*

Meanwhile it is not to be denied that the Scandinavian countries as well as Holland have prospered even under such restrictions. At first, war-time prosperity came only to the moneyed classes—as it did in the United States—but later it became general there also. These four neutral countries in Northern Europe have always had maritime importance far out of proportion to their size; and the principal effect of the war upon them has been vastly to increase their foreign



THE THREE KINGS OF THE NORTHLAND

"No one need try to pull the wool over our ears—we are too used to the cold!"

From *Nebelspalter* (Zurich)

trade. Norway has sold chiefly to Great Britain, and has, besides, placed many vessels in the carrying trade for Britain and Russia (by way of new Russian ports in the north). Norwegian sympathies lie rather with the British, with whom they have long had intimate commercial relations. Their Queen, furthermore, is a sister of the King of England. Sweden, on the other hand, has found it more profitable to trade with Germany, for the Baltic Sea, which separates the two countries, cannot be blockaded or even dominated by the British navy. The Swedish people have therefore been made to suffer more from "blacklists" and trade restrictions than have their Norwegian neighbors. Thus imports from the United States were reduced by British regulations from \$18,000,000 in the month of March, 1915, to \$4,000,000 in March, 1916. Upon several occasions Sweden has made emphatic protest to the Entente Powers against trade restrictions and interference with mails, even adopting retaliatory measures, or has made sharp reply to representations that Swedish neutrality has recently been partial to Germany.

*Holland and
Denmark*

The war-time prosperity that has come to Holland has been overshadowed by the enormous expense of keeping the Dutch army mobilized ever since the beginning of the war, and by



DR. ERNEST MARTIN
HOPKINS
(Dartmouth)



DR. AURELIA HENRY
REINHARDT
(Mills College)

TWO NEW COLLEGE PRESIDENTS

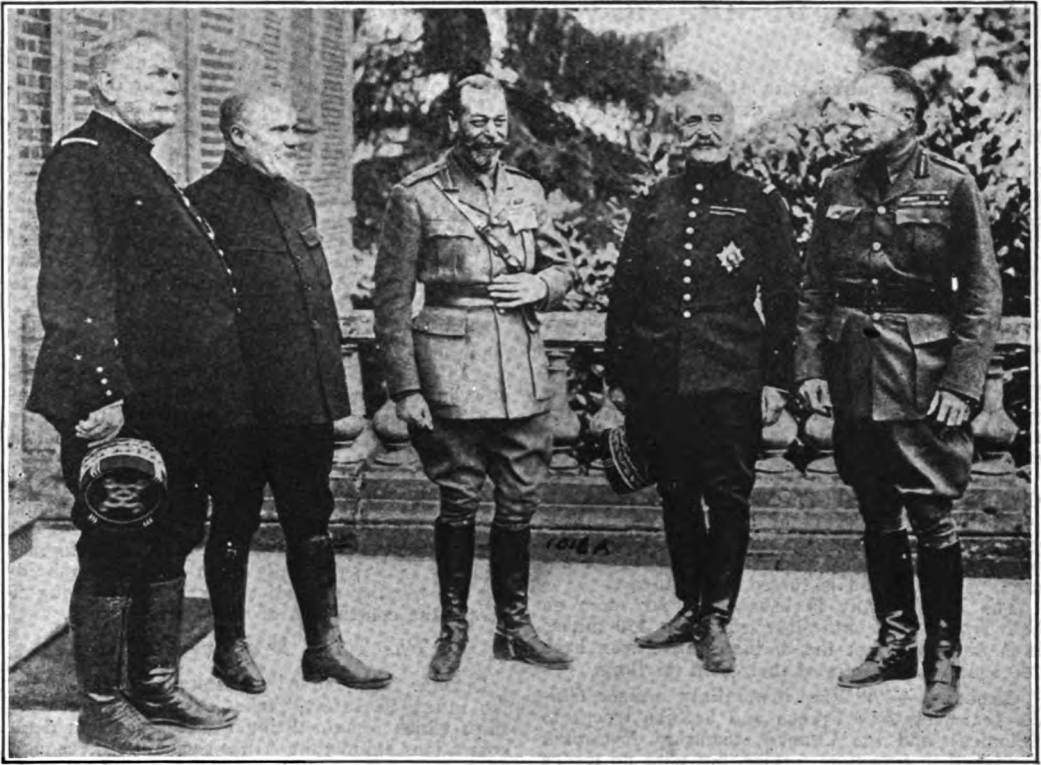
the cost of caring for Belgian refugees and interned combatants of several nationalities. Though the masses are pro-Ally in their sympathies, the governing class is pro-German. Both the husband and the mother of Queen Wilhelmina are of German birth. Holland's differences with Germany have grown out of the activity of submarines. A settlement in the case of the *Tubantia* had not been reached when, last month, a second Dutch ship was destroyed. One of the six vessels sunk off Nantucket, during the visit of the German submarine *U-53* to American waters, was the Dutch steamer *Blommersdijk*, carrying a cargo of grain for the Netherlands Government itself. The German submarine commander seems to have acted unwisely. It is in Holland that Britain's regulation of world commerce approaches perfection. The semi-official Netherlands Overseas Trust receives all imports permitted to pass the British blockade, and guarantees that none shall reach Germany. In Denmark, interest in international affairs has for the past three months centered around the proposal to sell the Danish West Indies to the United States for \$25,000,000. Although the purchase price is much higher than that set in previous negotiations, the treaty providing for the sale was ratified promptly by the United States Senate. In Denmark, however, certain phases of the proposal were seized upon by opponents of the party in power and made a political issue. The Danish people will vote upon the question in December, and it is believed that the treaty and sale will then be ratified.

New
College
Heads

In the field of education one of the most important events of the autumn was the installation of the new president of Dartmouth College, Dr. Ernest Martin Hopkins, who represents in his career and antecedents a later type of college executive. Immediately after graduation from Dartmouth, Mr. Hopkins had eight years' experience as secretary of the former president of Dartmouth, Dr. Tucker. Naturally, that experience was chiefly on executive and administrative lines, but since 1910 Mr. Hopkins, in assisting various corporations to solve some of the problems constantly arising between employer and employee, has been brought into more direct contact with the world of industry and business. Vocational guidance is a subject in which Mr. Hopkins has specialized particularly. A vacancy in the presidency of Mills College for Women, at Oakland, Cal., was recently filled by the election of Mrs. Aurelia Henry Reinhardt, a graduate of the University of California, who has received the degree of Doctor of Philosophy from Yale. Mills is the only college exclusively for women on the Pacific Coast.

Lo the
Growing
Indian!

The American Indian can no longer be described as the remnant of a dying race. For the first time in half a century a census has revealed a greater number of births than deaths in a single year among this people. The fact was brought out at the annual Lake Mohonk Conference last month, when Dr. Lawrence W. White gave an address entitled, "The Indian Is No Longer a Vanishing Race." The conference was also told how Commissioner Sells had begun, three years ago, a vigorous campaign to better sanitary and hygienic conditions in Indian homes; for this Commissioner cannot see why the Government should continue to spend large sums for the education of Indian youth if three-fifths of the children are to die before they reach the age of five! Dr. White gave figures to prove that the health campaign of the past three years has been effective beyond expectation. Many more medical officers and nurses are now on duty among the Indians, and hospitals have been built and equipped in large number. "Save the Babies!" is now the popular slogan with thousands of Indian mothers in the West, and field officers of the Indian Service testify to marked improvement in the cleanliness and sanitation of the homes into which these babies are born.



Photograph by American Press Association

THE RULERS AND MILITARY LEADERS OF FRANCE AND ENGLAND

(This notable picture was made at the British headquarters in France, on a recent visit of King George to the trenches. General Joffre, the Frenchman in supreme command of the Allied forces on the Western front, stands at the left. Next to him is President Poincaré. In the center stands King George. Next to him is General Foch, in command of France's northern armies. At the extreme right is General Haig, the British commander-in-chief)

RECORD OF EVENTS IN THE WAR

(From September 21 to October 20, 1916)

The Last Part of September

September 21.—An Austrian aviator destroys the French submarine *Foucault* in the southern Adriatic, by dropping bombs.

September 22.—Bulgarian forces under German leadership, retreating in the Dobrudja district of Rumania, inflict heavy losses on the Rumanians in an encircling counter-attack.

The French War Office announces that 55,800 German prisoners were captured in the battles at the Somme River in France, between July 1 and September 18.

The French Chamber of Deputies unanimously votes \$1,767,600,000 war credits, for the remainder of the year.

September 23.—Twelve Zeppelin airships carry out a night raid over London and the eastern coast of England; 38 persons are killed and 125 injured; two of the airships are destroyed.

September 25.—A second German airship raid over England causes the death of 36 persons.

September 26.—Former-Premier Venizelos arrives at Crete and accepts membership, with Admiral Coundouriotis, in a provisional government

whose object shall be the defense of Greek Macedonia from Bulgarians, and the joining with the Allies against all their enemies.

Combles, one of the principal objectives in the Somme offensive, is captured by British and French troops; Thiepval and Gueudecourt are also taken by the British.

September 27.—It is estimated at Paris that the Allies in the Somme fighting have recaptured from the Germans 117 square miles of French territory.

Announcement is made by New York City bankers of a \$50,000,000 loan to Paris, to be used "for the alleviation of suffering caused by the war."

September 29.—A second defeat for Rumanian arms is inflicted by German and Austro-Hungarian troops; the Russian First Army is surrounded at Hermannstadt and "destructively defeated" by General von Falkenhayn, who takes 3000 prisoners and large quantities of supplies.

September 30.—With the declaration of Chios in favor of the national defense movement of Venizelos, all the Greek islands are in revolt against the Athens government.

British casualties during September average 3800 a day, compared with 4100 in August and approximately 1000 daily during the first two years of war.

The "daylight-saving" period comes to an end in Germany and England, and clocks are set back one hour to their normal basis for the fall and winter.

The First Week of October

October 1.—Ten Zeppelin airships drop bombs on the east coast of England; one of the machines is destroyed north of London.

October 2.—A Rumanian army crosses the Danube between Rustchuk and Tutrakan and invades Bulgaria, with the object of getting in the rear of Field Marshal von Mackensen's army operating in Dobrudja.

The small French cruiser *Rigel* is sunk by a German submarine in the Mediterranean.

The Rumanian army of 15,000 invading Bulgaria, is routed by Germans and Bulgarians under Field Marshal von Mackensen, in an encircling attack, and is forced to withdraw.

The Allied army in Macedonia advances on both wings of a battle-line extending 150 miles; it is estimated that the Serbians have won back 230 square kilometers of their own territory.

October 4.—The French auxiliary cruiser *Galicia* (carrying 2000 French and Serbian troops to Salonica) and the Cunard steamship *Franconia* (engaged in transport service, but with no troops on board) are sunk by German submarines in the Mediterranean.

October 6.—Russian attacks on German and Turkish forces protecting Lemberg (Galicia) are declared to be the most violent delivered on the eastern front since the war began.

October 7.—A German war submarine, the *U-53*, enters Newport Harbor and leaves after the commander pays his respects to the American naval officer and announces that his vessel is 17 days out from Wilhelmshaven, with supplies enough to last three months.

British and French troops in the Somme district advance on a front of ten miles, the British occupying the village of Le Sars, within four miles of Bapaume.

The Second Week of October

October 8.—Six merchant steamships (four British, one Norwegian, and one Dutch) are sunk off the island of Nantucket, Mass., by a German submarine; American warships from Newport rescue the passengers and crews.

It is estimated at London that the Austro-German army under Von Falkenhayn has forced the numerically superior Rumanian army to give up 5000 square miles of conquered territory in Transylvania, including Kronstadt and Hermannstadt.

A new cabinet is formed in Greece by Prof. Spyridon P. Lambros.

October 10.—The State Department at Washington makes public its reply (dated August 31) to identical memoranda from France, Great Britain, Russia, and Japan (dated August 22), which had asked neutral governments to exclude belligerent submarines from neutral waters; the United States expresses its surprise and rejects the proposal.

October 11.—Upon the demand of Great Britain

and France the entire Greek fleet and sea-coast forts are turned over to the Allies or dismantled.

The British House of Commons agrees to a thirteenth war credit of \$1,500,000,000, bringing the total to \$15,660,000,000.

October 12.—The Italian War Office declares that 30,881 Austrian prisoners have been captured on the Julian Alps front since August 6.

In an interview granted to the correspondent of the London *Times*, King Ferdinand of Rumania appeals to the Allies not to permit Rumania to suffer the fate of Belgium and Serbia.

October 13.—Rumanian resistance to the German advance stiffens, and London reports that the Allies are rapidly transferring men and supplies in an effort to redeem the Rumanian blunder in invading Transylvania; almost the entire Austrian territory occupied has been relinquished by the Rumanians.

October 14.—The State Department at Washington makes public the reply of the British and French governments (dated October 12) to the American protest of May 24 against interference with the mails; the reply is an argument upholding the legality of mail seizures and refusing to accept the contentions of the United States.

The Third Week of October

October 16.—The Allied fleet in Greek waters, "to insure its safety," takes over the three warships which remained under Greek control; demonstrations against the Allies occur in Athens, and 1000 French and Italian sailors are landed to preserve order.

The Entente powers recognize the provisional Greek government set up by the Venizelos revolutionists at Salonica and Crete; the Greek Cabinet under Premier Lambros remains unrecognized.

October 17.—Taking the initiative in Galicia, German troops make successful attacks upon the Russian lines southeast of Lemberg—presumably weakened to assist the Rumanians in the Dobrudja district.

President Wilson announces the failure of his efforts to induce the European powers to agree upon terms for the relief of Poland by the citizens of the United States; replies to his letter of July 29 had been received from the King of England, the President of France, and the Emperors of Russia, Germany, and Austria.

October 18.—The Germans launch an attack against the Russian line from the Pinsk marshes to Rumania (300 miles).

The British Parliament, by a majority of 197, postpones consideration of the Irish question, the matter having been brought up by John Redmond, the Nationalist leader.

October 19.—The Cunard liner *Alaunia*, with 10,000 tons of war supplies, is sunk by a mine in the English Channel.

The British Chancellor of the Exchequer, Reginald McKenna, declares in the House of Commons that Britain is spending \$10,000,000 a day.

October 20.—Rumania reports that an Austro-German invading army, under General von Falkenhayn, has been driven back to the border; the Bulgar-German army in the Dobrudja district of Rumania begins a new offensive on the entire front.

The American agents of the *Bremen*, Germany's second trans-Atlantic merchant submarine (which left Bremerhaven about September 1) abandon hope of her safe arrival.



© International Film Service

THIRTY THOUSAND AMERICAN TROOPS PASSING IN REVIEW ON THE MEXICAN BORDER

(The greatest marching body of American troops since Lincoln reviewed the Northern armies, in Washington, at the close of the Civil War)

RECORD OF OTHER EVENTS

(From September 21 to October 20, 1916)

AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

September 23.—President Wilson, speaking to New Jersey business men at his summer residence at Long Branch, defends his solution of the railroad crisis and declares that the principle of the eight-hour day is not arbitrable.

September 25.—In an address at Dayton, Mr. Hughes, Republican Presidential candidate, declares that the Railroad Eight-Hour Law does not limit hours, but regulates wages.

September 26.—In the New Jersey primaries, Senator Martine (Dem.) is renominated, defeating Attorney-General Westcott, supported by the Administration; the Republican nominee is Joseph S. Frelinghuysen.

October 3.—Elections to the Philippine Senate are won by Nationalist candidates in 19 out of 22 districts.

October 5.—The President appoints Major-Gen. George W. Goethals, Edgar E. Clark (of the Interstate Commerce Commission), and George Rublee (of the Federal Trade Commission) as members of the board created by Congress to investigate the working of the Railroad Eight-Hour Law.

October 11.—The President appoints seven members of a citizens' Advisory Commission to be associated with the Council of Defense created by Congress.

October 12.—Candidate Hughes (in reply to a question during an address at Louisville) declares that if he had been President the *Lusitania* would not have been sunk, for the personnel and de-

clarations of the State Department would have commanded respect.

October 19.—President Wilson makes three addresses in Chicago. . . . Mr. Hughes returns to New York from his third western campaign trip.

October 20.—It becomes known that the United States Army has awarded contracts for 175 aeroplanes, to cost \$3,000,000, with arrangements for 200 others nearing completion.

AMERICAN RELATIONS WITH MEXICO

September 22.—Regiments of the National Guard of Kansas, Wisconsin, and Wyoming, are ordered to the Mexican border.

October 2.—The Mexican-American Joint Commission transfers its place of meeting from New London, Conn., to Atlantic City, N. J.

October 5.—Militia organizations still in State mobilization camps (approximately 8000 men) are ordered to the Mexican border. It is stated at Washington that there are 104,000 National Guardsmen at present on the border.

October 14.—In a letter to Governor Whitman of New York, President Wilson declares that the emergency which led to the call of the National Guard on June 18 still exists, and that it is impossible to set a date for the return of the troops.

October 15.—It is understood that the Joint Commission, which has been trying for six weeks to adjust the Mexican-American problems, is not yet near an agreement upon important matters, although still hopeful.



From the Pan-American Union, Washington, D. C.

DR. HIPOLITO IRIGOYEN, INAUGURATED PRESIDENT OF ARGENTINA ON OCTOBER 12

(President Irigoyen was born in Buenos Aires nearly fifty years ago. For over twenty years he has been prominently identified with political activities, although never before serving in public office. He has held the professorship of civic instruction at the Buenos Aires Normal School for Women, and has also held a chair at the University of Buenos Aires. He is a man of considerable wealth, and it is said that he has made over his Presidential salary of \$31,600 per year to the United Charities of Buenos Aires)

October 19.—A detachment of American troops and thirty armed Mexicans exchange shots in the Big Bend district of Texas.

FOREIGN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

September 30.—The Danish Parliament passes a bill providing for a vote of the people on the question of the sale of the Danish West Indies to the United States. . . . The Chinese government contracts with an American corporation for the construction of 1100 miles of railroads, involving an expenditure of more than \$60,000,000.

October 1.—In the Nicaragua election, Emiliano Chamorro (formerly Minister at Washington) is chosen President, the adherents of Irias (Liberal) practically abstaining from voting; it is declared that the presence of American warships, and the moral backing given to Chamorro by the Administration at Washington, materially influenced the result.

October 3.—Count Okuma, Prime Minister of Japan, resigns.

October 4.—Lieut.-Gen. Count Seiki Terauchi is requested by the Emperor to form a ministry in Japan.

October 12.—Dr. Hipolito Irigoyen is inaugurated as President of Argentina.

October 14.—Japan and Russia enter protests at Peking against contracts for railroad and canal construction granted to an American corporation.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

September 25.—Transactions on the New York Stock Exchange total \$2,192,300 shares, the heaviest trading since 1907; United States Steel Corporation stock reaches 120, a rise of 33 points within two months.

September 28.—The general sympathetic strike called by labor organizations in New York City to force a settlement of the traction strike fails to win the support of the workers.

September 30.—The 250-mile Astor Cup automobile race, at New York City, is won by John Aitken, driving a Peugeot car, with an average speed of 104.81 miles an hour.

October 2.—The Government's report on the cotton crop indicates a total of 11,637,000 bales (500 lbs.), a small average yield from a large planting.

October 5.—The people of Nebraska celebrate the fiftieth anniversary of the admission of their State into the Union.

October 9.—The Government's crop forecasts indicate a wheat yield of 607,557,000 bushels, the smallest since 1904; other cereal crops are also short. . . . A hurricane sweeping over the Danish West Indies causes wide suffering and heavy property loss.

October 11-12.—Two by-standers are killed and scores of persons hurt during strike riots at the Standard Oil plant in Bayonne, New Jersey.

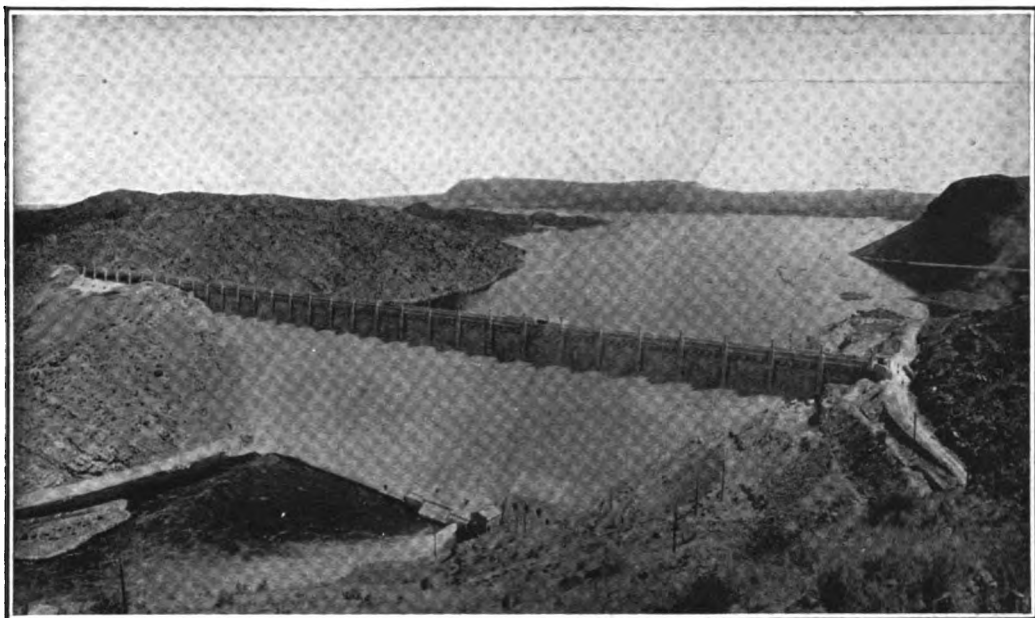
October 12.—The Boston American League baseball team wins the world's championship series with the Brooklyn National League team, four games to one.



Photograph by American Press Association

AMBASSADOR AND MRS. GERARD

(Mr. Gerard returned to the United States last month, for his first vacation since he went to Germany as Ambassador three years ago)



ELEPHANT BUTTE DAM, IN NEW MEXICO, FORMALLY DEDICATED ON OCTOBER 14

(The largest mass of masonry in the world, creating the greatest irrigation reservoir—such in brief is the distinction of Elephant Butte Dam. Situated on the Rio Grande, between Albuquerque, New Mexico, and El Paso, Texas, the dam creates a lake forty-five miles long and averaging six miles wide. The crest of the structure forms a roadway across. Nearly 200,000 acres of land in New Mexico, Texas, and old Mexico are watered and reclaimed. In connection with the formal dedication, the Irrigation Congress assembled at the dam and at El Paso)

October 20.—Wheat for December delivery reaches \$1.71¾ on the Chicago Board of Trade, the highest price (with the exception of a "corner" period) since the Civil War; the demand grows for an embargo on wheat and flour exports.

OBITUARY

September 22.—Bishop George W. Peterkin, of the Protestant Episcopal diocese of West Virginia, 76.

September 24.—Dr. Joseph Hoising Kastle, director of the Experiment Station of the University of Kentucky, 52.

September 26.—Vice-Admiral Concas y Palau, the Spanish arbitrator in land disputes between Panama and the United States.

September 27.—Rear-Adm. C. E. Vreeland, of the General Board of the Navy, 64.

September 29.—James Haywood Southgate, of North Carolina, Prohibition candidate for Vice-President in 1896, 58.

October 1.—Major-Gen. Galusha Pennypacker, U. S. A., retired, a distinguished Civil War commander, 72. . . . James P. Clarke, United States Senator from Arkansas, and president pro tempore of the Senate, 62.

October 2.—Benjamin Kidd, the British author of works on social evolution, 58.

October 4.—Major William Warner, former United States Senator from Missouri, 76. . . . George A. Joslyn, president and owner of the Western Newspaper Union.

October 5.—Prof. Austin B. Bassett, secretary of Hartford Theological Seminary, 57. . . . Rev. Dr. Marcellus Bowen, for nearly forty years an American missionary in Turkey, 70. . . . Emil Deckert, the German author of a famous descriptive work on North America.

October 6.—Brig-Gen. Delavin Viele, U. S. A., retired, 76. . . . Col. David Gregg McIntosh, a distinguished Maryland lawyer and Confederate veteran, 80.

October 8.—Rear-Adm. Francis A. Cook, U. S. N., retired, commander of the cruiser *Brooklyn* at the battle of Santiago, 73.

October 10.—Otto, the insane and deposed King of Bavaria, 68.

October 12.—Rev. Dr. Horace Grant Underwood, the first Presbyterian missionary in Korea, 57.

October 13.—Dr. Matthew Woods, a distinguished Philadelphia author specialist on epilepsy, 67. . . . Nicola Filipescu, the Rumanian statesman.

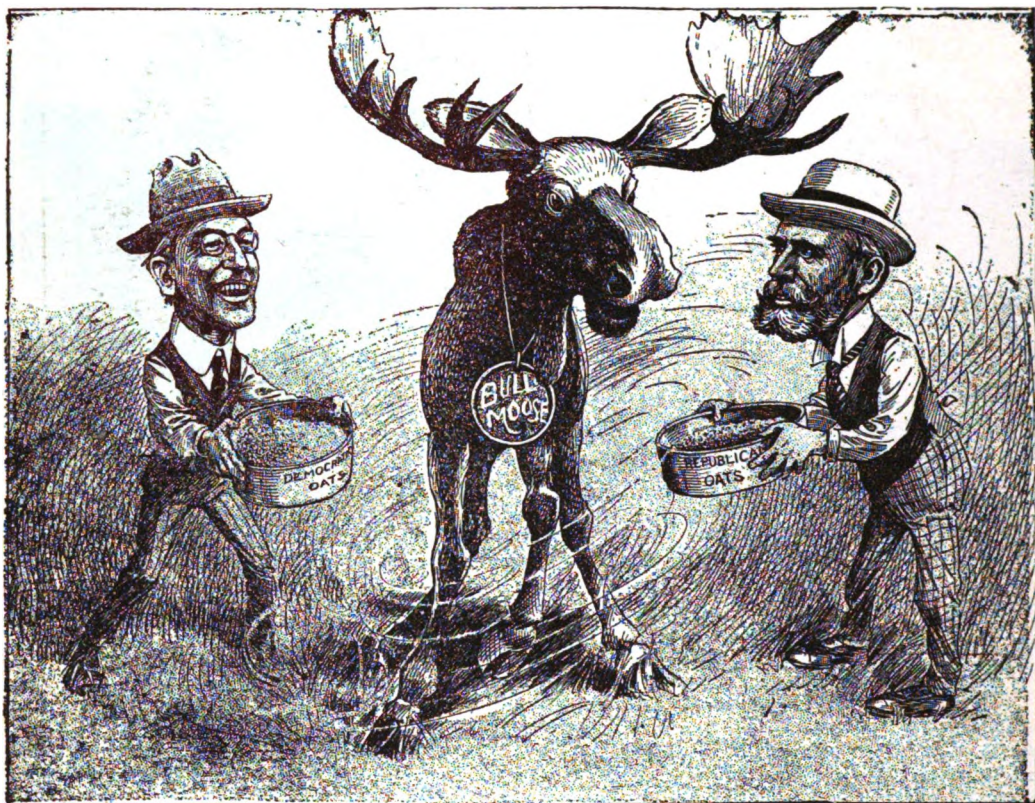
October 14.—Virgil G. Bogue, a distinguished American civil engineer, 70.

October 15.—Rev. Dr. Francis Brown, president of Union Theological Seminary, 66. . . . Count F. A. Taube, formerly Swedish Minister of Foreign Affairs.

October 16.—Henry Splitdorf, manufacturer and inventor of electrical appliances, 83.

October 19.—Prof. David N. Camp, a prominent Connecticut educator, 96.

THE CAMPAIGN IN CARTOONS



"COME, MOOSIE! GOOD MOOSIE! NICE MOOSIE!"

(The lucky man in the coming election will be he to whose tempting oats the Bull Moose is attracted)

From the *Globe* (Utica, N. Y.)

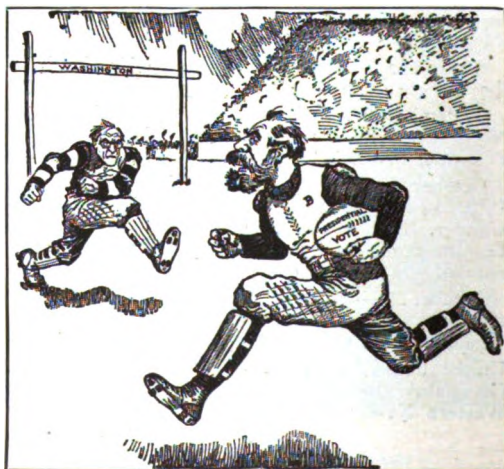


IS THIS HOW YOU FEEL ALSO?

Miss COLUMBIA: "So this is the national campaign!"

From the *Journal* (New York)

THE national campaign now about to close seems to have been marked by a lack of that intense partisan activity that



THE GAME IS ON

From the *Telegram* (New York)



THE ANVIL CHORUS
From the *World* (New York)

usually characterizes our Presidential contests. "Columbia"—as the *New York Journal* cartoon puts it—has been somewhat apathetic. Perhaps the people had quite made up their minds months ago as to whether to continue the Wilson Administration at Washington or to change it. This would account, in a measure, for a certain amount of indifference to the usual emotional appeals of a political season. Colonel Roosevelt has undoubtedly contributed much toward putting "punch" and ginger into the campaign—a fact readily recognized by the car-



RECONCILED
(T. R. and Taft, at the Union League Club, New York, October 3)
From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus)

toonists. In the drawing from the *New York World*—which has been President



HITTING THE LINE!
From the *Evening Sun* (New York)



A BIG-STICKER
From the *Eagle* (Brooklyn)



HIDING HIS HEAD
From the *North American* (Philadelphia)



WILSON'S FUTURE
WILSON: "And if I am not re-elected, I shall always be able to get a job as a note writer."
From *Nebelspalter* (Zurich)

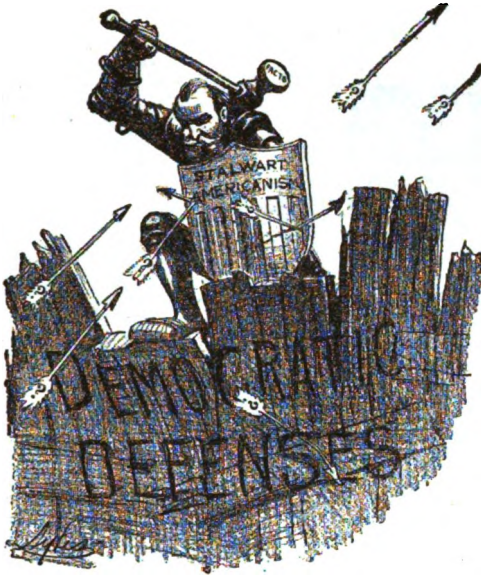


"I SEE NOTHING TO BE ASHAMED OF"
From the *Post Express* (Rochester)

Wilson's staunchest newspaper supporter, both in editorials and cartoons—we see T. R. and Hughes hammering at Wilson's record. This note—termed by some cartoonists as "knock-



POINTING WITH PRIDE
From the *News-Tribune* (Duluth)



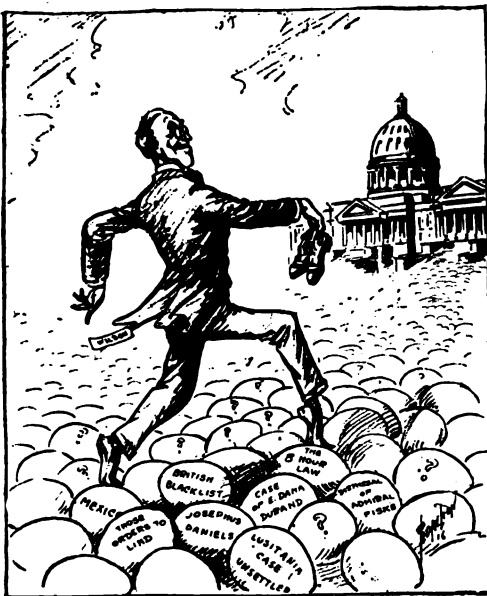
SMASHING THROUGH
From the *Public Ledger* (Philadelphia)



ON TO VICTORY
From the *Chronicle* (San Francisco)

ing"—has been struck in many of the anti-Hughes cartoons. The Democratic slogans, "He kept us out of war" and "What would you have done?" have been made much of by the pro-Wilson cartoonists, as has also the alleged German support of the Republican candidate. The anti-Administration cartoonists, on the other hand, have promptly taken up the gauntlet and played upon these pet

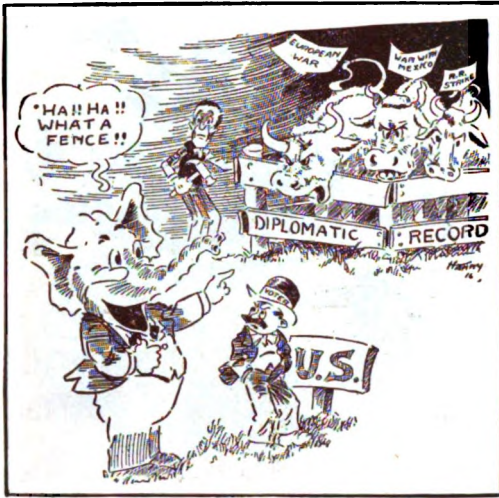
arguments in telling fashion. Other topics on which they have pounded the Democrats effectively have been the Mexican question, the tariff, the new railroad law, Wilson's foreign policy—in dealing with which the cartoonist has usually stuck a white feather in the President's cap or given him a white



PUSSYFOOTING
From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul)
Nov.—3

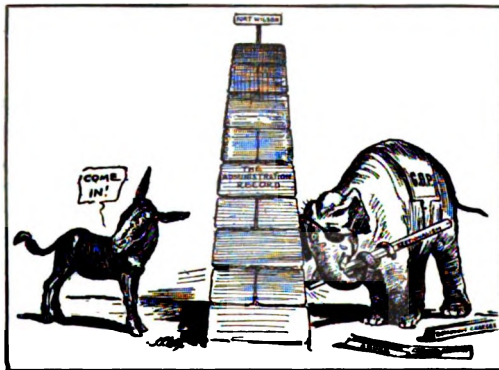


"HE KEPT US OUT OF WAR"
From the *Register and Leader* (Des Moines)

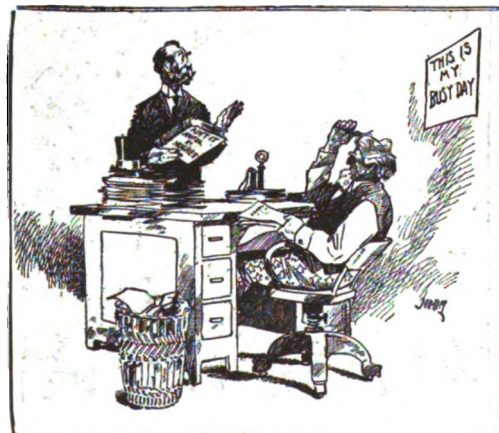


"IT DID THE WORK, DIDN'T IT?"
From the *News Press* (St. Joseph)

flag, denoting lack of courage—and, of course, alleged Democratic incompetence and



THE ASSAULT. MAGNIFICENT ON THE ADMINISTRATION RECORD!
From the *Commercial Appeal* (Memphis)



SEE THAT SIGN?
(Trying to sell a book entitled "Ain't It Awful," by Hughes, to busy Uncle Sam)
From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland)



PLEASING THE CUSTOMER

HUGHES: "If I haven't got what you want, you'll find it across the aisle."

From the *Times* (New York)

extravagance. On both sides, the "knights of the pencil" have done their share towards enlivening an otherwise quiet campaign.



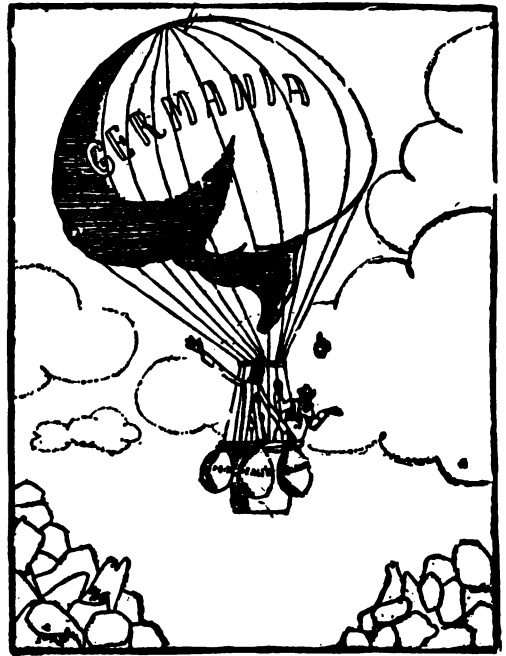
THAT MAN WILSON!
From the *News* (Dallas)

WAR CARTOONS FROM ABROAD



"BOCHE" (GERMAN) PEACE EFFORTS

BETHMANN-HOLLWEG: "You have not had much success, my dove!"
(The "dove" in the cartoon is a vulture disguised with "whitewash, guaranteed, made in Germany")
From *Pêlé-Mêle* (Paris)



GERMANY AS THE FALLING BALLOON

"Isn't it time to throw down the ballast, your majesty?" (The ballast bags are labeled Serbia, Belgium, and Poland, the Russian cartoonist implying that Germany will soon be willing to relinquish her hold on these countries)

From *Listok* (Odessa)



OH! PITY THE WOES OF A POOR NEUTRAL

GREEK BOY CONSTANTINE: "Come what may, I'll remain neutral."
From *Hindi Punch* (Bombay)



"POOR GERMANIA! THE WAR GROWS LONGER AND LONGER AND HER SWORD GROWS SHORTER AND SHORTER"
From *Mucha* (Warsaw)



GERMANY AND PEACE

THE GERMAN: "If you don't come by to-morrow, we will be beaten."

PEACE: "In that case, my dear, I'll come—to-morrow."

From *L'Asino* (Rome)



RUMANIA (THROWING HERSELF BETWEEN TURKEY AND THE CENTRAL POWERS): "WITH YOUR PERMISSION, I WILL COME IN BETWEEN YOU."
From *De Nieuwe Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam)

The whole Balkan situation seems to have reached the boiling point. Rumania has seen steady fighting since her recent entrance into the war, and some severe reverses. Greece—by revolution, and pressure from the Allies—has been pried from her neutral position, and Bulgaria, perhaps rueing her choice of sides, daily awaits the long-expected grand offensive from Salonica.



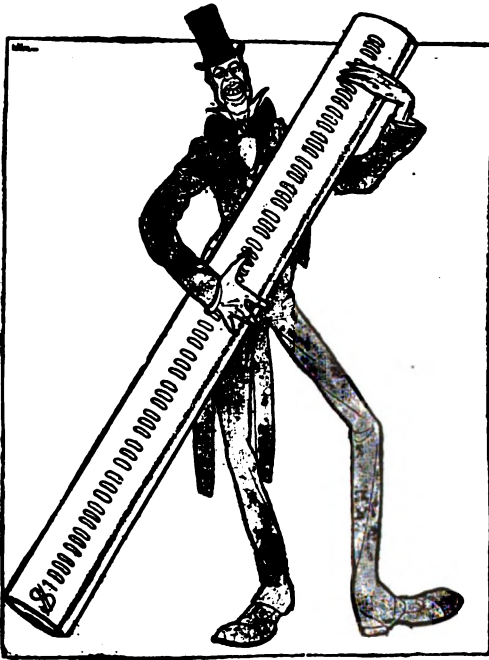
THE ENTENTE'S WAR "ORCHARD"
RUMANIA (entering): "There is now no doubt that I am going to win."
(Rumania's entrance into the orchard may not have been without some thought of fruit-picking; but the fact that the "orchard" in the picture is really a cemetery coincides grimly with Rumanian disasters in the opening battles with the Teutons)
From *Blanco y Negro* (Madrid)



A "FREE" BALLOT
THE ALLIES: "Now, my dear Greek, vote as you please—but according to our desires."
From *Nebelspalter* (Zurich)



THE LONE BALKAN FOX
A wily fox one day lost his tail in a German promise trap. He immediately endeavored to induce the other Balkan foxes to cut off their tails. "No," replied the others, "you may take the consequences of your own foolishness, but we will not part with our tails to keep you company in your misery. The Allies and victory for ours." And so they left him to bewail his loss. (After Aesop)
From the *Star* (Montreal)



THE RÔLE OF AMERICA

According to a newspaper report, President Wilson declared that America was on the point of playing a great rôle in the world, whether it wished to do so or not.

(The kind of "roll" Uncle Sam is playing in the cartoon throws some light on German opinion of America's place and influence in the world)

From *Simplicissimus* © (Berlin)

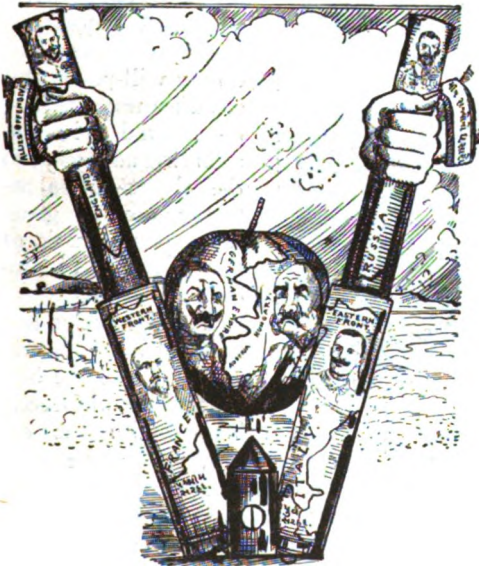


USELESS LABOR

UNCLE SAM (to warring nations climbing toward the wreath of victory): "You had better all stop, my good friends, you are about exhausted"

From *Nebelspalter* (Zurich)

The Allies' cartoonists naturally derive much inspiration from the present offensive against the Germans, as is shown in the cartoons printed below.



THE "NIPPERS" AND THE "NUT"

(Mr. Lloyd George recently stated that he was satisfied with the way things were going. He felt for the first time in two years that "the nippers were gripping and we should soon hear a crack, when we should be able to extract the kernel")

From *Hindi Punch* (Bombay)



AFTER TWO YEARS

BRITANNIA: "Now is the winter of our discontent made glorious summer by this radiant sun." (*Richard III*, adapted) From *Cape Times* (Cape Town)

VENIZELOS: THE FOREMOST GREEK

BY MILTIADES CHRISTOPHIDES

(For some years past the Greeks in this country have had a scholarly and brilliant organ in the daily newspaper *Atlantis*, of New York. It is the editor-in-chief of that paper who, at our request, turns from his swift penning of daily comment in fluent Greek upon the startling events reported from his native country, to write for us in clear and virile English the following sketch of the ablest of living Greek statesmen. Perhaps if Greek classes in our schools would subscribe for *Atlantis* and read the editorials of Miltiades Christophides, they would rid themselves of the notion that Greek is a dead language.—THE EDITOR.)

FROM the midst of what seemed a general decadence of Hellenism, a hero arose, some years ago, whose moral magnitude we have beheld towering above the ruins of "the glory that was Greece." He undertook to rebuild his country, and to restore Hellas to its ancient greatness and splendor. Until the spring of 1915, this seemed to be the destined task of the man Eleutherios Venizelos, the ex-Premier of Greece and now the head of the provisional government set up in Salonica against the Government at Athens.

Whether the abrupt termination of his services to the Greek state, as a result of his overthrow by King Constantine some nineteen months ago, marked the definite end of his achievements toward the realization of his dreams, or whether he will succeed as leader of a revolution in accomplishing what is left of his avowed mission, is a question which we may wisely leave for the future to answer.

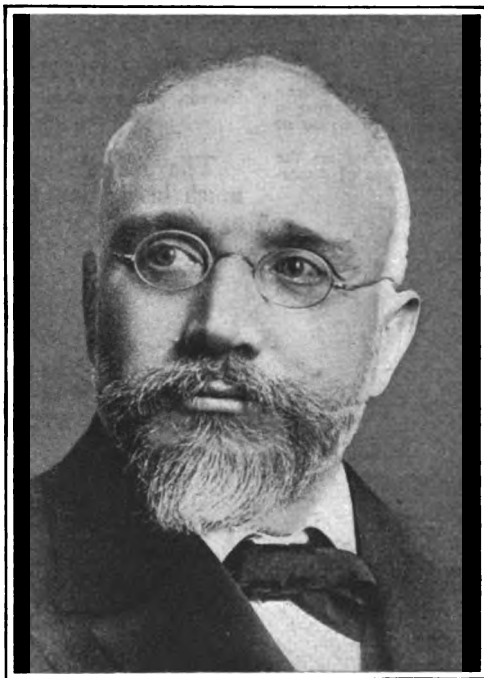
Born in a small village on the island of Crete, in the year 1864, Venizelos received his preliminary education in the schools of his native island, after which he studied law in the University of Athens. He is a lawyer of prominence and of learning, and is reputed to

be the wisest law-maker that has come out of Crete since the time of Minos and Radamanthys.

An English correspondent in Greece, a few weeks ago, said that Venizelos looks more like an Italian of Piedmont than a Greek islander. In fact, a great many foreign journalists who have seen the ex-Premier have doubted his Greek descent. His blue eyes, his surprising coolness, his absolute self-control, his ability to overcome and conceal his emotions, his extraordinary will-power, his steadfastness of purpose, and his unswerving adherence to the object to be attained, are not generally characteristic of the Greeks of today.

Yet, Venizelos is a most genuine Greek. His is one of the oldest families of Greece. True, with the ex-

ception of his two sons, he is the only bearer of his family name in Greece. One might mistakenly regard the name of Venizelos as of Italian origin. Still, we find his ancestors living in Athens at the time when the Venetian Admiral Francesco Morosini bombarded and destroyed the Parthenon (about the middle of the seventeenth century). One of the best houses at the very foot of Acropolis belonged to the Veni-



ELEUTHERIOS VENIZELOS

zelos family, together with a beautiful private chapel.

It seems that the name Venizelos is originally a Byzantine name. From Athens the Venizelos family went to Pylos, on the fertile western coast of Peloponnesus, having been compensated by the Venetian Republic with a generous gift of land for their part in an effort of Athens to coöperate with Morosini against the Turks.

From Pylos the family moved to Crevatas, near Sparta, and then to the island of Crete, whence Eleutherios Venizelos was invited, in 1910, by the Military League—an organization of officers of the Greek army aiming to eliminate corrupt and inefficient politicians—to assume the leadership of a revolution that needed a guiding master-hand.

A LEADER OF REVOLUTIONS

He had been brought up in an island accustomed to revolution for centuries. He had taken active part in successive uprisings against the hated Turk. He was the leader of the Cretan revolution which precipitated the disastrous war of 1897 between Greece and Turkey. After the European powers, as a consequence of that revolution, had compelled the Sultan to grant autonomy to Crete and to recognize Prince George of Greece as their High Commissioner in the Island, Venizelos led a second revolt, to force the powers to realize that half-measures in the interest of Crete were doomed to failure, and that the only satisfactory solution must be the union of Crete with the mother country.

In 1908 a third revolution broke out in Crete under the leadership of Venizelos, who then proclaimed the union of the island to the Kingdom of Greece. The powers again refused to recognize this union. On his departure for Athens in 1910, Venizelos left his native island still struggling for the realization of its unalterable desire to become a part of Greece.

Mr. Venizelos landed in Greece as a member of the National Assembly, having been elected to it by the people of Athens.

The Greek public demanded that the Assembly should be given power to change the Constitution, even if it should wish to alter the very foundations of the *status quo*. It was clear that the King's position was anything but safe. Venizelos, speaking to a large crowd immediately after his arrival in Athens, insisted that the National Assembly ought to confine its work to revising the Constitution, leaving its fundamental articles untouched. He finally gained his point.

HE BECOMES PREMIER

The late King George, appreciating this service to the crown, entrusted him with the formation of a new cabinet. Before accepting the mandate of the King, however, Venizelos demanded absolute freedom of action for the purpose of purifying Greek politics, for the introduction of various reforms in the administration of the country, and for the reorganization of the military and naval forces of Greece. His conditions were accepted by the King, and he began by chopping off the heads of the Lernaean Hydra of political corruption that was ravaging Greece.

In the course of three years the work of restoration and reorganization had made such progress as to permit the formation of an alliance with Bulgaria and Serbia, for the purpose of liberating the Christian races of the Balkan Peninsula from the Turkish yoke.

The Balkan League was the thunderbolt of Venizelos against the oppressor of his native island. All efforts to persuade the Great Powers and Turkey to recognize the union of Crete with the Greek Kingdom having failed, the Cretan statesman resolved to attempt the settlement of the whole problem of the position of Turkey in Europe and in the Egean Sea by uniting the Christian peoples of the Balkan Peninsula against the Ottoman Empire. With this purpose in mind he established the Balkan League, which, however, was serviceable in more than one way, affording at the same time a protection against the "benevolent interest" of Austria-Hungary in the Balkan Peninsula.

THE WAR AGAINST TURKEY

The Dual Monarchy was about to intervene in the Balkans with a new scheme for the "welfare" of the different races of Macedonia, when the Balkan League, emerging from the obscurity of its unknown existence, seized the Turk by the neck, asking for a final settlement of the age-long differences between the former vassal peoples and the Osmanic conqueror. "*Jacta alea erat.*" The long-dreaded clash was an accomplished fact.

Turkey had to fight. Europe, with her various plans and conflicting interests, had to stand aside. Germany and Austria were not ready for a European war at that time, while, on the other hand, England and Russia were bound to resist any attempt on the part of the Central Powers to invade the Balkans. The same Great Powers which were unwilling to let Greece take the island of Crete from the Sultan permitted the dismember-

ment of Turkey in Europe by the victorious Balkan states.

In the plans of Mr. Venizelos, the formation of the Balkan League and the defeat of Turkey were only the first steps toward the establishment of a permanent confederacy of the Balkan nations. Was this possible? Will the Bulgarian ever fraternize with the Greek? Who knows? Venizelos is a dreamer of dreams. His optimism is as boundless as is his ability to transform dreams into realities. This is perhaps due to the fact that his hopes and his dreams are interwoven with pure calculation. He is a kind of prophet. He still believes that a Balkan confederacy is not a hopeless impossibility.

The Near East, the cradle of European civilization, has to have peace. It is entitled to the enjoyment of the fruits of peaceful development after many centuries of tragic vicissitude. If the Bulgarian is the obstacle to such a happy issue, a good beating, or a series of chastisements, would perhaps induce him to take a more reasonable attitude. The first dose of this medicine was administered to the Bulgar shortly after the end of the first Balkan War, on the initiative of Mr. Venizelos.

During the peace conference of London, Venizelos, being at the head of the Greek delegation, had an opportunity to ascertain the views of the Bulgarian representatives as to the division of conquered territory. As soon as he was convinced that nothing short of the lion's share would satisfy Bulgaria, he began to fathom the minds of the Serbians as to the possibility of a common resistance against what seemed to be a determination on the part of Bulgaria to master the Balkans.

THE SECOND BALKAN WAR

He left, however, nothing undone to prevent the second Balkan war. The Rumanian delegate, Mr. Take Jonsescu, said that the patience and forbearance shown by Mr. Venizelos in face of the overbearing and offending attitude of the famous Dr. Danef, the Bulgarian plenipotentiary, were some of the many grounds of his deep admiration for the Greek statesman. Even after the conclusion of the Greco-Serbian treaty of alliance, Venizelos tried hard to avoid the second war, which, however, became inevitable.

Bulgaria was sufficiently punished for her conduct. She was thrown to her knees by the united Greek and Serbian armies. As a result of that war Greece, in addition to retaining Salonica, secured the greater part of Eastern Macedonia with Kavalla, Seres, and Drama.

VENIZELOS VERSUS CONSTANTINE

At the beginning of the present war, a few days before the Battle of the Marne, Venizelos offered the coöperation of Greece to the cause of the Allies. Sir Edward Grey, the British Foreign Minister, replied that the interests of the Entente required that the war should not extend to the Balkans. A few months later, Sir Edward Grey asked for the coöperation of the Greek army and navy in the ill-conceived Dardanelles campaign.

Venizelos accepted the invitation, but King Constantine and the General Staff insisted that the Dardanelles were practically impregnable. A plan of campaign against Constantinople, drawn by the Greek General Staff, was submitted to the Allies instead. It was rejected, and Greece remained neutral. Venizelos, insisting that Greece should take part in the war, was ousted from power. From that time dates the lamentable division of public opinion in Greece that has brought the country to the present state of absolute disruption. In October, 1915, Venizelos—having been recalled to power, after a victory over the neutralists in elections that followed his overthrow—again proposed the intervention of Greece in behalf of the Allies.

For a second time he was forced to resign. Two months later new elections took place, from which Mr. Venizelos and his party abstained, declaring that the King had no right to dissolve the Parliament and to proclaim new elections at a time when 300,000 of the voters were under arms on account of the general mobilization of the Greek army. For almost a year afterwards Venizelos—while criticizing the King's policy—maintained a loyal attitude, avoiding the encouragement of any uprising against those responsible for the continuation of neutrality.

The intervention of Rumania on the side of the Allies, and the invasion of Greek Macedonia by the Bulgars, have brought about a complete change in his attitude. One night, a few weeks ago, he left Athens for Crete, to assume the leadership of a revolution that was started by his sympathizers in Salonica and in the islands of the Egean Sea. From Crete he went to Salonica, where he established a provisional government with a view to the raising of an army of volunteers to fight against the traditional foe who had invaded the Greek territory. He is still hoping. To him despair is something unknown. He will do everything in his power to secure a place for Greece in the congress of peace. And he can do a great deal.

GERMANY STRIKES RUMANIA AND SAVES THE BALKANS

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS

I. CONDITIONS OF GERMAN SUCCESS

RARELY in the course of the war has there been a prompter or more completely successful answer to a hostile combination than that by which Germany in October restored the balance in the Balkans and made her newest enemy, Rumania, feel the weight of her sword. Not since the campaign through Serbia, a year ago, has Germany been able to score a triumph as impressive as that won in Transylvania, although the later success still falls far short of the Serbian achievement.

The conditions of German action were plain. The sudden intervention of Rumania had not alone opened a new front, extended greatly the lines of the Central Powers, required new armies and new arrangements, it had raised political questions of the gravest sort. Most important of these was the Hungarian problem. Of a sudden the Magyars found their own lands invaded, Transylvania, their dearest province, overrun, the integrity of the Hungarian kingdom threatened.

This condition provoked bitter outcry at Budapest, and instant demand that the German General Staff rescue Transylvania. Precisely as Hungary had demanded of Germany that the Russians be thrown back across the Carpathian passes in the first days of 1915, she now demanded that a new German effort be made to clear Transylvania. And the complaints and demands of Budapest made a loud noise in Berlin. The one race in all the Austro-Hungarian nationalities, whose soldiers had won German approval, whose loyalty and sacrifices had been beyond cavil, was able to draw on a balance in the German capital, accumulated over the years of the war.

But it was not alone Hungary that clamored; the Bulgarian situation was even more critical, for the very existence of Bulgaria, caught between the millstones of Rumanian armies on the north and Allied armies at

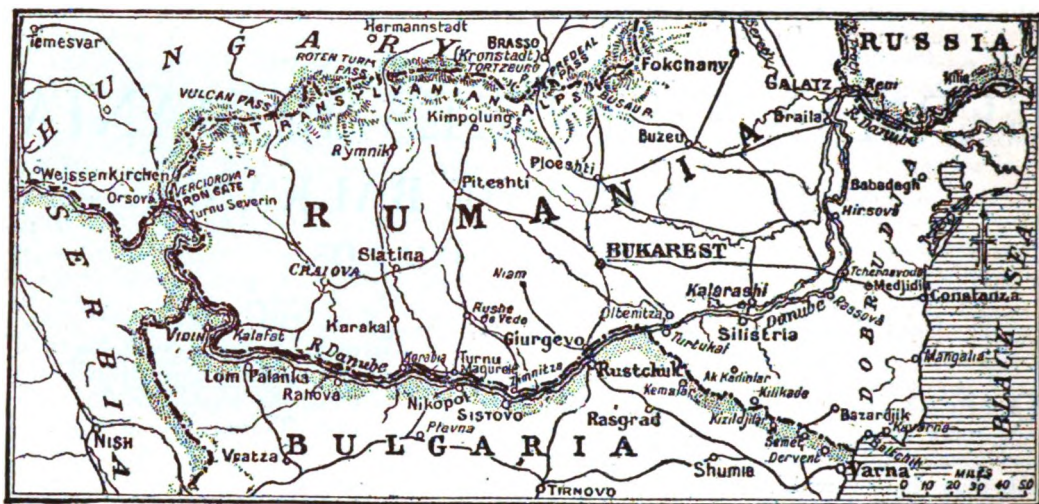
Salonica, was at stake. There was a real peril for Germany in the opening hours of the Rumanian crisis, lest Bulgaria take the proffered bribes of the enemies of Germany and change sides. Turkey, too, moved restlessly in the presence of a possible isolation from her great allies.

It was, then, incumbent upon Germany to strike, to strike at once, and to strike a blow that should relieve the Hungarians, by clearing Transylvania. It was necessary to reassure and re-enthuse the Bulgarians by removing an immediate danger and providing new causes for national satisfaction over the German alliance. It was further incumbent upon Germany to insure the safety of the life-line that bound Constantinople to Vienna and to Berlin.

This was the German problem. This was the problem that her enemies believed beyond her resources. She had to create, or at the least, provide, new armies. She had to undertake suddenly a very considerable campaign, and pending the moment when she could get new armies into the field and at the danger point, she had to use the meager resources at hand in such fashion as to delay Rumanian and Russian advance, prevent its achieving any decisive success that could not be abolished when at last Germany had organized her counterstroke.

All this was accomplished in shining fashion. It was accomplished without any apparent weakening of the German lines in the West, where the Allied advance continued, to be sure, but at a slow and practically unaccelerated pace. Further, it was accomplished without offering to Russia any new chance to attack along the wide front from the Baltic to the Carpathians; without weakening the armies before Sarraïl in Macedonia; without crippling the armies which faced Cadorna from the Lago di Garda to the Carso Plateau.

For what Germany accomplished before her new enemies could deal a fatal blow, even if, as is by no means certain, her counterblow has now, on October 20, reached its maxi-



RUMANIA'S POSITION IN THE WAR

(For the convenience of our readers we reproduce the map printed in our October number)

mum, no praise can be too high. On the other hand, it is necessary to note that once more there were signs of a fatal lack of coördination in Allied general staffs.

II. IN THE DOBRUDJA

When I closed my review last month, the first step in the German countermove was just becoming plain. Between the Danube and the Black Sea, in the Southern Dobrudja, the region taken from Bulgaria in the Second Balkan War, Mackensen was striking north. His objective was not clear. It was conceivable that he aimed at Bucharest across the Danube, but this was highly doubtful, given the military obstacle of the broad river. It seemed more likely that his objective was the Bucharest-Constantza railroad, which crosses the Danube by the famous Cernavoda Bridge, the only bridge spanning the river between the Black Sea and Belgrade. His purpose seemed to be to reach this railroad line, seize this bridge, and cut off Rumania from the sea.

Back of this local purpose, as I pointed out a month ago, was the larger strategic purpose of compelling the Rumanians to draw out of Transylvania the mass of their armies, which had rushed into their "lost province" as the French had piled over into Alsace and Lorraine in the first days of the war. Success in this venture would at one time restore a province to Hungary and regain for the Bulgarians a district lost by them in the fatal conflict of 1913.

Mackensen did not reach the Bucharest-Constantza railroad. At the moment when

these lines are written he is materially south of the nearest point his invasion came to the railroad. But he did realize his larger purpose. Rumanian troops were hurried south out of Transylvania, and the invasion of the Hungarian lands was delayed and thrown into confusion. At the same time, the conquest of the Dobrudja served to fire Bulgarian enthusiasm anew and promptly destroy all possible chance that Bulgaria would desert the Central Powers, who had now aided Ferdinand to regain, not merely all that had been lost in the Second Balkan War, but Monastir, and the Macedonian districts, which had never been occupied by Bulgarian troops in the recent war with Turkey.

In examining this exploit we touch upon the first of the several obscure details, which are already arousing speculation and criticism in Allied quarters. It is asserted, with some show of authority, that the Rumanian adventure into Transylvania was in direct conflict with the advice of the Allies. It is asserted that at the final moment, after long hesitation, Rumania acted so precipitately that Russia was unable to get her troops up in time to support Rumania in the Dobrudja. As to the Salonica situation, I will discuss this in a moment, but, it is also asserted, that conditions existed there which were fatal to prompt and effective coöperation between Sarrail's army and other armies now operating in the Balkans.

Conceivably the Rumanians were led into Transylvania by sentiment. Certainly sound strategy would seem to have demanded that they first deal with the Teuto-Turk-Bulgar

army in the Dobrudja, the single army in being at the moment. Defeat here would have been fatal to Bulgaria, would have isolated Turkey, and opened the way for communication between Salonica and Bucharest across Bulgaria and a redeemed Serbia. In the larger strategy of the war this would have far outweighed any spectacular success in Transylvania.

But the Rumanians went into Transylvania. Mackensen gathered up the six or seven divisions of troops at hand, mainly Bulgarian, with a division or two of Turks and a complement of German and Austrian heavy artillery, pushed up and took Turtukan, and Silistria, gathered up several Black Sea towns, came within an ace of getting across the vital railroad, and was only brought to a halt and turned back when Rumanian troops were recalled from Transylvania and Russian divisions began at last to arrive. At the outset, moreover, there seem to have been only two Rumanian divisions before his seven, and one of these was captured in Turtukan, the other routed about Silistria. By the first days of October, Mackensen had done his work and was entrenching far within Rumanian territory between the sea and the Danube.

III. IN TRANSYLVANIA

Meantime, the Rumanians, having at the outset of the war (before the declaration, the Germans assert) flowed over into Transylvania, had cut deep into the semicircle of that province, which is held in the embrace of the two Rumanian provinces of Wallachia and Moldavia. A line drawn straight from the point where Bukovina, Transylvania, and Rumania meet to the town of Orsova on the Danube will show approximately the extent of the Rumanian advance. Kronstadt, Hermannstadt, and a score of less important towns had fallen; at its high-water mark the Rumanian invasion had swept in more territory than the Germans hold in Northern France.

But the Dobrudja attack began to draw off Rumanian troops. The invasion failed to reach the line of the made stretch of the Maros river, to gain control of the strategic points necessary to the defense of the conquered territory. Now, at last, a new force intervened. Falkenhayn, former chief of the German Great General Staff, appeared in Transylvania with a great German army, and signalized his entrance as a field general by winning a great victory about Hermann-

stadt, which freed this city from Rumanian forces and opened the collapse of Rumanian invasion.

We do not know from what direction Falkenhayn drew his forces. Yet information reaching me from Germany points to the probability that he was placed in command of a great army which had been prepared to deal a counterstroke against the Russians in Galicia. Apparently the Germans had been accumulating munitions and organizing army corps to strike back in the field where the Russians had won their great triumph in the early summer, abolish the menace to Lemberg and, in some measure at least, repeat the great success of 1915 about the Dunajec.

At all events, in a period of time that seems now incredibly short, Falkenhayn appeared with his great army, struck the Rumanians, already weakened by the drafts sent off to face Mackensen, defeated them and pushed them south through the Red Tower Pass, and later through the Predeal Pass south of Kronstadt right across the Rumanian frontier. German official reports announced the rout of two Rumanian armies, and the capture of vast supplies and many guns, but of surprisingly few prisoners. By October 15 the Rumanian invasion had gone the way of the French dash into Lorraine in August, 1915. The question that remained to be decided, and is still open when these lines are written, is whether Rumania can stay the invasion at the frontier as the French halted the Germans who had won the Battle of Metz on the eastern side of Nancy.

Look at the map and you will see that Falkenhayn south of Hermannstadt and Kronstadt, Mackensen southwest of Bucharest and in the Dobrudja, are little more than a hundred miles apart. They are separated by the width of the Rumanian province of Wallachia; and if they should march toward each other, they might hope to meet at Bucharest, the Rumanian capital. Such a victorious thrust—double thrust, it would be—would, in addition to taking the Rumanian capital, cut the Rumanian kingdom in half, isolate and doom to capture all the Rumanian troops west of the capital, and put the Central Powers in possession of at least half of the whole country.

As I write these lines the world has just read with amazement the appeal of King Ferdinand of Rumania to his allies to save Rumania from the fate of Belgium; and Russian troops and French generals are reported

as rushing to Rumanian aid. We can see the greatness of the peril that threatens this easternmost of the Latin states, but we cannot measure the gravity of the situation because we do not know the actual condition of the Rumanian armies. If they have not lost their morale, they should be able to hold the mountain passes at the frontier indefinitely. But if their morale has been destroyed, we shall soon see the Germans approach Bucharest, as they have approached and occupied Brussels and Belgrade. As it stands, Rumania has lost the glittering prize for which she risked war. Assuredly there never was a more dramatic change in a single month nor a more complete revenge than that of the Germans.

IV. SARRAIL'S DIFFICULTIES

When Rumania entered the war it was generally believed that the Allied army before Salonica would take advantage of the opportunity to press north into Macedonia and to strike for the Berlin-Constantinople railroad, which crosses Serbia. It was supposed that Sarrail had a vast army equipped and ready for the auspicious moment which had now arrived.

To the amazement of the world, there was no considerable activity in Macedonia. The Serbs were pushed up toward Monastir and almost reached this town. The British got across the Struma and approached Seres. The Italians began to advance from Valona across Northern Epirus, ousting Greek garrisons as they passed. But there was no sudden, heavy, successful northward push by the Salonica army, and there is no present promise of it. Indeed, the coming of winter seems destined to close the Balkan passes before

Sarrail can now hope to cross them and reach Uskub and Nish.

What is the explanation of this new failure? The most satisfactory answer I can give is found in the bitter words of Dr. Dillon, the best informed of writers in English upon the Balkans. In the October number of the *Fortnightly Review* he says:

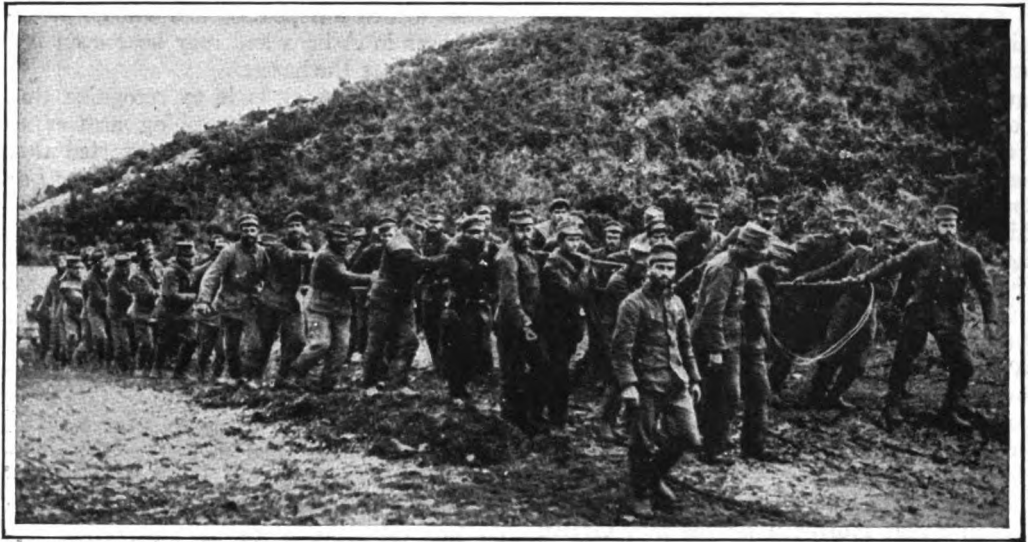
Everyone knows how unwilling certain powers were to provide him (Sarrail) with the wherewithal for the offensive. Only quite recently Great Britain consented to the proposal that the indispensable supplies should be transported, and very few people are cognizant of the heterogeneous army there to-day, from the point of view of munitions, health, and means of locomotion. Sarrail's critics are numerous and severe, but whatever strictures the present state of things, including his inactivity, may seem to call for, should be directed to those who, despite reiterated appeals, telling arguments, and friendly suasion, left him in command of an unequipped band of international soldiers, surrounded by covert enemies and paid spies. When the history of the Salonica Expedition is written it may wreck the writer's reputation for veracity, so incredible are the denseness, obstinacy, and scorn of logic and common sense which it will reveal.

Here, as I read it, is a very frank statement that the responsibility for the failure of Sarrail to act at the decisive moment, when action might have repaired the whole Balkan mess of a year ago, rests with the British and flows from a refusal to give Sarrail the proper resources to enable him to make the best of a golden opportunity. Apparently there is no limit to the capacity of the British to blunder in the Near East. British stupidity cost Serbia her liberty; the unspeakable folly of British field command lost all the great chances to win in Gallipoli; Sir Edward Grey's handling of the Balkan situation completed the ruin of Serbia, and in-



THE BALKAN OPERATIONS; THE ALLIES' PREPARATIONS—THE STORES OF SHELLS FOR ANY EVENTUALITY—A FRENCH AMMUNITION DEPOT OUTSIDE SALONICA

(Each nest of shells consists of four rows, and is roofed with a sheet of corrugated iron)



© by the American Press Association

GREEK SOLDIERS HAULING BIG GUNS

sured the disaffection of Greece. As for Kut-el-Amara and the Mesopotamian mess, the truth about them cannot yet be told in England, and has amounted to a national scandal.

I have a very well-informed correspondent who from time to time writes to me to say: "I am afraid of Sarraïl; he is a political general. He will make a great blunder yet." All the evidence at hand seems to point to a blunder. There has been, so far, a great failure—this is clear, even if the situation shall be repaired presently. But the blame, up to date, seems to rest with the British, with those responsible for transport, rather than with Sarraïl.

The Serbian successes about Monastir have made considerable noise in the press, but they are really of small consequence. The Serbs have just got their feet on their own soil, that is all. They have fought well, but the main thrust in the Balkans, if there is a main thrust, will not be made by Serbians; and its chances of success this year grow smaller as each week brings winter closer to the Balkans.

V. VENIZELOS REVOLTS

Rumanian disaster had immediate consequences in Greece. A month ago even the Greek King seemed on the point of following the example of his brother sovereign of Rumania. But the fortunate moment, for the Allies, passed, and Constantine promptly sat back again upon the fence of neutrality, from which he had almost been lifted down.

His conviction that Germany would win the war had a new confirmation, and his neutrality was fortified by Rumanian misfortunes.

Thereupon Venizelos left Athens, joined the pro-Allied leaders in that New Greece which he had won for his sovereign, proclaimed a rival government to which Crete, the islands of Egean and Greek Macedonia declared their adhesion, and proceeded to Salonica to organize a Greek force to participate in the war.

Promptly thereafter the Allied commander in Greece took drastic steps to dispose of the peril of a pro-German rising in his rear. An ultimatum was delivered to the Athens government demanding the surrender of all Greek warships, the control of Greek railroads and telegraphs. The ports of Greece, notably the Piraeus, the port of Athens, passed under direct Allied control, and Allied officers undertook the operation of the railroad going from Athens to the old Greek frontier above Larissa and destined shortly to bind Salonica to the capital.

The single explanation of this drastic action was found in the hint that Constantine had prepared to withdraw from Athens up the Larissa railroad, entrench himself, with such troops as remained loyal, and await a German relief force coming south from Monastir. At all events, it is clear that the Allies, long suspicious of the Hellenic monarch, were at last convinced that there was no possibility of enlisting him as an ally, and proceeded to render him innocuous as a possible foe.

To all suggestions coming from the Greek King as to possible rewards for Greek participation, the Allies remained deaf as they equally declined to recognize or deal with Constantine's ministers. Unmistakably they are preparing to deal with Venizelos as the real ruler of Greece. But even to him it is doubtful if the Allies will now offer anything beyond a guarantee of the integrity of the Greek state that existed after the Treaty of Bucharest.

Thus in many ways Greece has suffered or is suffering almost as much through neutrality as Serbia and Belgium have suffered through participation in the war. A Bulgarian invasion has laid waste to one province and Bulgars remain in occupation. The Germans have kidnapped one army corps, and the Italians have ousted the Greek troops guarding that Northern Epirus that Greece has hoped to annex with the consent of the great powers. To all intents and purposes, most of Greece is now actually under military rule, mainly the rule of the Allies; but Kavala and Drama are in Bulgar hands. Her fleet has been dismantled and Allied support of Venizelos threatens a civil war. As for parliamentary government, this was abolished by the King himself, long ago, as a detail in his frantic campaign to keep his country out of war, either through fear or love of Germany.

As to the future, it is clear that if Rumania suffers a Serbian fate, the King's hold upon his people will be strengthened; but failing this, and particularly if there come presently Allied successes in Macedonia, it is not difficult to see that Venizelos will presently gain control of the capital, as he now has control of the islands and the Macedonian districts, and in such an event there is every reason to believe that Constantine will lose his throne and that his people will make him a scapegoat, seeking to propitiate Allied anger by throwing over the monarch mainly responsible for the direction Greek policy has followed during the war.

VI. THE LOST CHANCE

In sum, then, the Allies seem to have lost the greatest chance that the war has yet offered them to settle the Eastern Question after their own plans by isolating Turkey from her greater allies. Conceivably the tide will turn in the next weeks, and the opportunity once missed may return. But, barring this contingency, it must be recognized that the Allies have suffered a very considerable

defeat, which has already had unhappy consequences in Athens and may bear even bitterer fruit at Bucharest.

Equally necessary is it to recognize that Germany has given a crushing answer to those of her critics who have asserted that she was at the limit of her resources. For a new peril she has found fresh defenses. Against a new enemy she has sent fresh troops who have won great successes, and may yet dispose of this enemy as Serbia and Belgium were disposed of in 1914 and 1915.

Yet in all this it is essential not to overlook the other side of the picture. Germany certainly had a great army in reserve. But the army was designed to restore the situation in the East, not in Transylvania; and victories won along the Transylvanian Alps do not take the place of prospective victories in Galicia. Germany has met and halted a new enemy. She may presently dispose of this new enemy's military power. But in doing this she has used up one more army, in part at least. It may well be that, in inviting German wrath, Rumania has taken a blow designed for Russia; but if this be the case Russia has escaped and the situation for Germany has to this extent worsened, not bettered, as a result of the new campaign, successful as it has been. And even the conquest of Rumania would still leave Germany worse off than two months ago, for there will still have been opened a new front, from Bukovina to the Black Sea, which would have to be defended by German and Austrian troops against Russia, if not against Rumania.

Germany is engaged in an endurance test with a coalition of nations collectively far stronger than herself and those states which are standing with her. German success, now, is predicated upon a victorious resistance to superior numbers and a continued occupation of the territories which she took early in the war. Outnumbered, she must make the cost of advance so heavy for her Russian, French, British, and Italian foes that they will presently find that they cannot pay the price. But, when Germany has to send troops against Rumania and incur new casualties and use up more ammunition against this new foe, she is weakened with regard to her other enemies.

A campaign against Rumania that was completely successful and drove the wreck of the Rumanian army into Russia or even annihilated the military force of Rumania, would not be a gain for Germany over her

situation while Rumania was neutral, but a loss, measured by exactly the number of men and the amount of ammunition expended in this triumph, because in these respects she would be weakened in her combat against her main foes. In a war of attrition, such as the present conflict has become, it is the death-lists that count; and Rumania, even though the cost may be terrific to her, has weakened Germany by opening a new death-list.

German victories against Rumania will doubtless do much to encourage the German and Austrian, as well as the Hungarian, Bulgarian, and Turkish publics. They have manifestly helped the German loan, just being offered to the people. But unless they discourage France, Russia, Italy, or Britain sufficiently to lead one of these nations to leave the fight, they do not permanently strengthen Germany, but, rather, they weaken her by exactly the amount they cost her. For this the chastisement of Rumania is no recompense, however it may gratify German indignation and Austrian wrath.

VII. PROSPECTS OF PEACE

And that recent events have given any sign of a desire for peace on conditions now attainable in any Allied nation, I do not think will be asserted anywhere. On the contrary there has recently come from Lloyd George a memorable interview, setting forth the new determination of the British people to go forward and expressing that sentiment which is generally recognized to have become predominant in Great Britain recently.

In this interview Lloyd George made use of those sporting similes that are familiar to the simplest of Britons and in the words of the prize-ring described Britain as a contestant, who had suffered long through inferior preparation and training, but having taken severe punishment and bearing many marks, having avoided the knockout when it threatened, was now convinced that victory was attainable and determined to seek a decision and a knockout, was resolved to fight a "finish fight."

No public utterance since the war began, not even the eloquent words of the French Premier on several occasions, has carried such instant and complete conviction. Even in Germany, as I am informed by one lately returned from Berlin, the interview made a sensation because it carried conviction and banished fond hopes.

In the three months between the opening

of the Somme offensive and October 1, British official reports acknowledge casualty lists amounting to materially more than 300,000. With the great struggle in Picardy continuing and apparently destined to continue, the British must foresee a continued loss of above 100,000 a month. In the face of this Lloyd George's words take on a new meaning.

Parliament met under the influence of the words of Lloyd George and they were echoed by the Prime Minister himself, who appeared for the first time since the death of his own son, killed on the field of battle. That the present British determination is to fight to a finish cannot be mistaken. As for France, she has never wavered and those who return from Paris tell me that a conviction that victory is now within reach, if still far in the future, dominates French thought and explains French opinion.

In Germany the Reichstag re-assembled and the Chancellor's speech contained no new offer of peace, no reassertion of peace terms, based upon that "map of Europe," mentioned some months ago. But if one Socialist member attracted world-wide attention by declaring that the French censor prevented the French people from knowing that they could have peace on the basis of the map of 1914, on the basis of before-the-war conditions, this view found ready denial from all the really influential groups and nowhere in the utterances that marked the first sessions of the Reichstag was there any real hint that Germany, that the men who control Germany, were prepared to offer the evacuation of conquered territories as a basis for peace negotiations.

On the contrary, the Rumanian victories and the continued failure of the French and British to pierce the German lines seemed to have inspired new confidence and new hope, if not of the victorious peace expected in 1915, at least of a peace in which Germany would find herself in some measure remunerated for her vast sacrifices.

The simple truth seems to be that Germany is very far from being sufficiently exhausted to demand a truce or ask for an end of the war on unfavorable terms, while her foes are sufficiently encouraged by the events of the summer to be prepared to continue through another year a war, a struggle, the end of which they are now satisfied will be a complete triumph and a peace which will guarantee the things for which they believe that they are fighting. Actually the prospects of peace have not seemed darker at any

moment since the war broke out than they appear in the twenty-seventh month of conflict.

VIII. ON THE SOMME

It remains now to discuss briefly the progress of the Allied offensive on the Somme. Since I last wrote there has been material progress, more than has been made in any other four weeks since the July drive which opened the battle. Were the British to advance as far in the next four weeks as they advanced in the last they would be literally on the edge of Bapaume, while the French are already east of Péronne along the Bethune highway north of that town.

In one great joint attack the British and French together took Combles, the British at last seized Thiepval, which had so long held them up, and the French made progress eastward to and across the Bethune highway about Rancourt. Five thousand prisoners were taken in this single venture and a number of guns, many of them of large caliber.

We may say, then, that the Somme offensive, now in its fourth month, is being pressed with greater vigor and more success than in the period following the first days. This is in strong contrast to the Verdun operation of the Germans, which never showed any great driving power after the first great rush in the last week of February.

As it stands, the Somme drive has resulted in a gain of twice as much ground and the capture of twice as many prisoners and more than twice as many guns (500, to quote official figures) as the Verdun attack, while it is still to run some weeks before it equals the Lorraine contest in time.

In the past month many assertions, patently extravagant, have been put forth on both sides to prove the cost of the Somme battle. The Germans allege that the cost to the Allies has been a round million. French and British figures claimed a total German loss of around 600,000, including nearly 100,000 prisoners. Now we know that the French concede a loss of 250,000 at Verdun, while the Germans admit to a casualty-list a little larger, and about half that mentioned in French official estimates of German loss at Verdun. Finally the British officially admit a loss in three months of fighting, mainly at the Somme, of above 300,000.

If the French and German losses were equal at Verdun, then there is no reason why, in a similar operation on the Somme, there should be any striking difference between the cost of attack and defense. But there is

no escape from the conclusion that the Germans have underestimated their Verdun losses, and neutral observers agree that the total Teutonic casualties at Verdun were not less than 500,000, or at a ratio of two to one, compared with the French.

Accepting this estimate as a basis of computation, it is reasonable to conclude that the Germans have not lost more than half as many men as the Allies at the Somme. As the British have lost 300,000 on their own statement, in three months, they will hardly have lost less than 400,000 at the end of this month. The French loss has been very much smaller, probably not more than 100,000. As against this the German loss has been, at the very least, 250,000. If the capture of Germans continues at its present rate to the end of the month, there will be a total bag of above 80,000, or more than twice as many as the Germans took at Verdun. Conceivably, therefore, the German loss at the end of the month will be around 300,000, as contrasted with a British loss of 400,000 and a French loss of more than 100,000.

Now, putting the Somme and the Verdun figures together, it will be seen that in the West the Germans have lost in the two chief engagements between 750,000 and 800,000 men; that the British have lost 400,000, and the French between 350,000 and 400,000. But the noteworthy thing is that while the total losses on either side have been approximately equal, which might be expected, the whole loss on one side has been borne by the Germans, while it has been about equally divided on the other. And allowing for German losses in the East, where the fighting has been very severe, it is hard to see how the total losses of Germany in the present year can be figured at less than 1,000,000.

If you say that while the British have been losing 400,000 men, the French 400,000 men, the Russians something less than 400,000—that is, the Russian armies fighting Germans—the Germans have alone lost a million, you will say what the Allied critics are saying, when they talk about the effect of a war of attrition upon Germany.

Now, turning to Austria, we have Russian official statements to prove that 420,000 prisoners, almost all Austrian, have been taken in the East, while the Italians announce 30,000 prisoners since they began their Gorizia drive, all of them Austrian; and even the Rumanians count 15,000 prisoners, chiefly Austrian. We may say that Austria has lost 350,000 men by capture, her Trentino and Gorizia defeats cost her at



Photo by Central News Service

A TYPICAL GROUP OF GERMAN PRISONERS TAKEN AT GINCHY DURING THE BRITISH ADVANCE

least another 100,000, and her casualties, due to death and wounds in Galicia and Volhynia, must have amounted to 300,000. In sum Austria must have lost not less than

750,000 men since January 1. As against this stands the German statement that Russia has lost 1,000,000 in her offensive since June 1. As we set down 400,000 to the



THE BOMBARDMENT OF A GERMAN POSITION, AS SEEN FROM THE AIR

(This photograph, taken by a French aviator, shows German trench lines, with shells bursting among them)
Nov.—4

German score, we may put the remaining 600,000 against the Austrian. Italian losses in the same time must have been at least 150,000. The losses of Austria in battle with the Italians and Russians was thus 750,000, and the losses of the Russians and Italians combined equally large, but divided between two nations.

Now if you look at the population of Russia, France, Britain, and Italy on the one hand, and of Germany and Austria on the other, you can easily discover why the loss of 1,750,000 to the latter alliance is more serious than the loss of a large number divided as we have divided it—400,000 British, 400,000 French, 1,000,000 Russian, and 150,000 Italian—is to the opposing alliance. And the Austro-German alliance has suffered a greater permanent loss, because of its casualties nearly one-third, 550,000 to be exact, have been in prisoners, while the Allied loss in prisoners has not been more than a quarter as large, including the first Verdun bag.

IX. POUNDING

The Somme operation is essentially a pounding operation. It has for its main object to kill Germans rather than to retake French territory. It is founded upon the conviction of the Allies that the Germans are beginning to lack numerical strength and that they will not permanently be able to hold lines as extended as they now occupy.

Incidentally, the Allies are gaining small particles of French territory, and they may soon be able to force the Germans to shorten their lines materially. Even from German statements it is plain that the eventual surrender of both Bapaume and Péronne is now recognized as probable; but these withdrawals may have little meaning, beyond the relinquishment of small areas terribly devastated. The true measure of Allied success must be found in the comparative casualty-lists and the comparative strength of the reserves of the two alliances.

If the Germans are compelled to fight Russian, French, and British armies at one time and thus suffer casualties from all three fights, casualties borne by Germans alone, while those of the enemies are divided, then, although the total German casualties may be smaller, the drain on German resources of man-power will be far greater, and the hour of exhaustion will be reached much earlier. And when the Rumanians came in they added one more strain on German man-power.

Unless all signs fail, this pounding is going to be continued right through the winter and through the following summer. The cost to the Germans will rather mount than diminish as the Allied armies increase in numbers and munitionment, as they are likely to increase in the case of the Russians and the British; the French will not increase in numbers, but only in artillery strength. We are likely to see the British losses increase and the French diminish, for the British have so far lost not more than half as many men as the French out of a materially larger male population. We shall probably see the British take over a new section of the western front before many months. Henceforth the main burden on the west must be borne by the British, and the heavier losses will fall to their share, for the French have done more than their part.

If you think of Germany in terms of a contestant in a relay race, with her rivals putting in a fresh runner at each heat—now French, now Russian, and last of all British—while the German runner has to make the whole course alone, you will exactly catch the idea that is in the Allied mind and the basic principle of Allied strategy.

We do not know the present state of German man-power. We do not know what reserves remain; but we have just seen in the Rumanian case that Germany has been able to put in a new army without weakening her other fronts visibly. This would seem to indicate that German exhaustion has not become absolute, and that Allied calculations have been too optimistic. But we do know that Germany had less men to start with than her enemies; that her losses by comparison with those of Russia or of Britain have been disproportionately high, regard being had for the total of available man-power, while they have been about equal—equal in percentage, I mean—to the French. As for Austria, her losses as compared with Italian have been enormous, and her existing resources cannot be larger than those of Italy alone, without regard to Russia.

We may have a whole year of pounding before there is any real evidence of exhaustion; conceivably more, although this is unlikely, but the inexorable logic of a war of attrition must not be mistaken, and the attention of observers should not be distracted from this sordid detail by any brilliant strategic combination which wins a local triumph against a new foe at the cost of another set of casualties, which must hasten the day of ultimate exhaustion.



From International Film Service

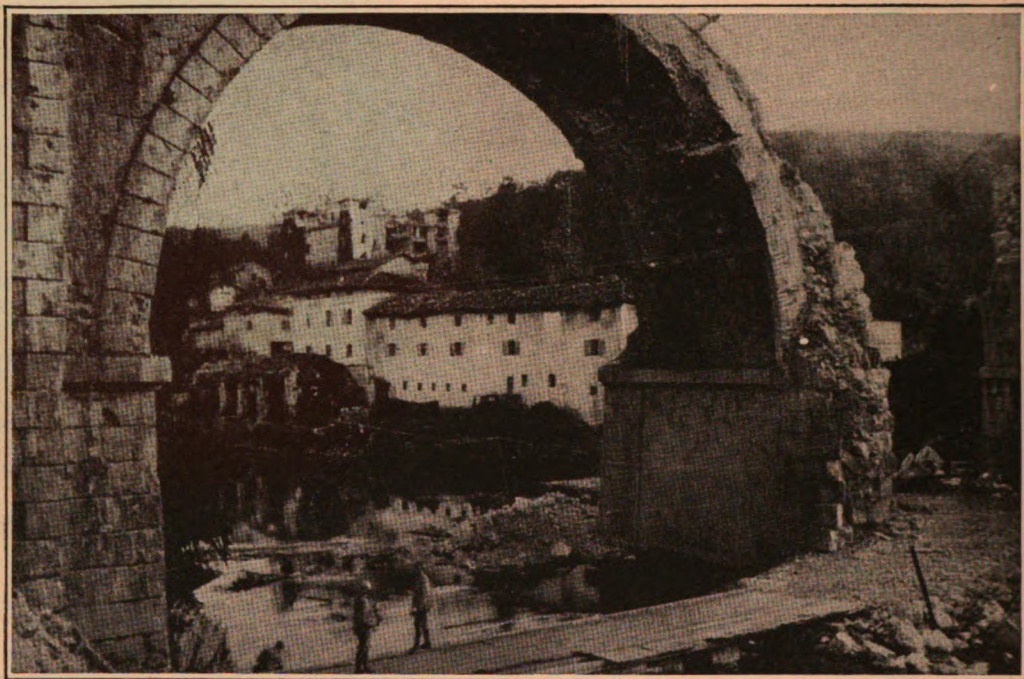
GUNS ON THEIR WAY UP TO THE FRONT HAULED BY GREAT "CATERPILLAR" TRACTORS
(From an official government photograph taken in France)



From Paul Thompson

A SHELL DUMP IN THE WHEAT FIELDS ADJACENT TO THE SOMME

(Here shells are unloaded from the railways throughout the day and night, keeping up a never-ceasing supply of munitions for the British offensive)



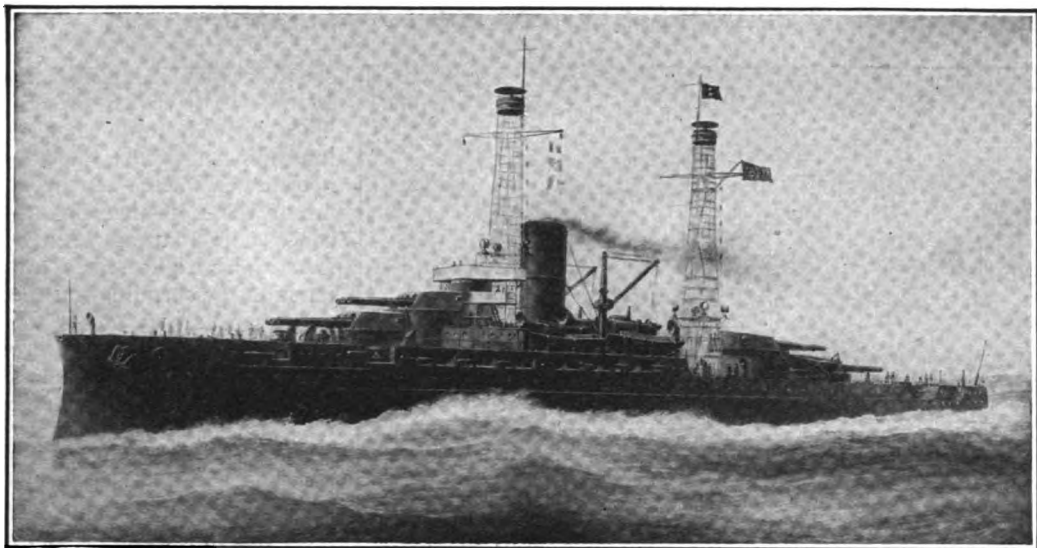
IN THE REGION OF THE ITALIAN ADVANCE BEYOND GORIZIA
(A wrecked bridge over the Vipacco at Rubbia)



Photo by Press Illustrating Service.

A BATTLEFIELD ON THE GALICIAN FRONT

(This picture, from an official photograph received from the Hungarian War Ministry, gives a good view of the trenches, with Hungarian soldiers occupying them)



© by E. Muller, Jr., N. Y.

THE SUPERDREADNOUGHT "ARIZONA," NEWEST BATTLESHIP OF THE UNITED STATES NAVY

(This great fighting unit is a sister ship of the new *Pennsylvania*, pictured on the front cover of this issue. She was built at the New York Navy Yard, and went into commission on October 17. The *Arizona* is 600 feet long, and her displacement is 34,000 tons. She is equipped with twelve fourteen-inch, twenty five-inch, and two anti-aircraft guns, and four torpedo tubes)

OUR NEW NAVY

WHAT WILL UNCLE SAM OBTAIN FOR HIS MONEY?

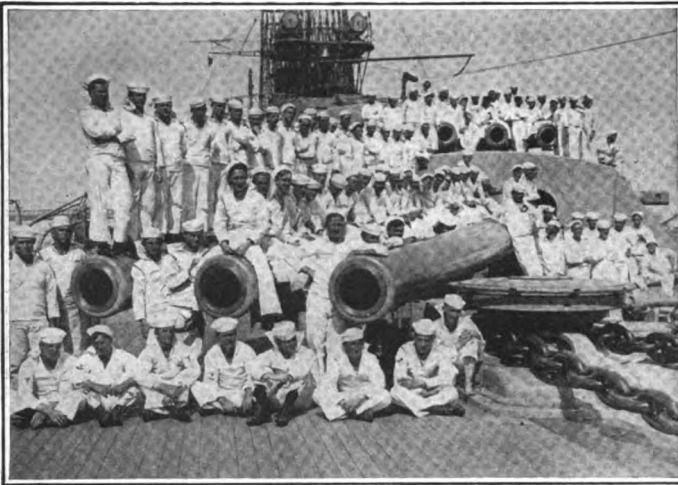
BY A. C. LAUT

EVERYBODY, who thinks at all, knows exactly what happened when the war broke in July of 1914. Ship sailings were cancelled. Stock exchanges closed. Cotton could not be sold at 4 cents a pound, and wheat was embargoed on rail sidings at Buffalo, New York, and Baltimore, so that the great grain exchanges of Chicago, Minneapolis, St. Paul, and Winnipeg wired to their country buyers to stop buying grain altogether. I happened to have as a guest in my home a veteran Board of Trade operator from Chicago. "Unless the sea lanes open," he predicted, "you will see wheat down to 60 and 40 cents by Christmas." Cotton operators and growers saw looming ahead of them the total loss of the year's crop. At one fell swoop grain-growers saw wheat at prices that would not pay the cost of seeding and threshing; for it now costs \$7 an acre to seed and harvest wheat; and when the price of thirty bushels to the acre drops to 40 cents, you have not enough left to pay man hire and team hire.

For the first time in history, the *Middle West* realized, *what does the sea matter to us?* For the first time in history, the Middle

West sat up and asked—*What's a merchant marine to us? What's a navy to us?* All the world knows the rest—the flustered, frantic efforts to provide national funds to finance cotton, to buy freighters, to provide a federal merchant marine—in a word, to lift ourselves by our bootstraps out of the commercial slough in which messy methods and blind bull-headedness had plunged our export trade. With huge cotton, corn, and wheat crops, prices dropped plumb to bottom. Why? Because the sea was closed, and we couldn't ship the output. I had friends in the West with ten-thousand-bushel crops. Ruin seemed to be staring them in the face.

Suddenly, something happened. Instead of selling at 40 cents, wheat moved up to \$1, and \$1.50, and \$1.65. Cotton was back to pre-war levels, while experts were still discussing how to avert ruin. *What had happened?* *The sea lanes had opened.* Every sea lane all over the world was open wide, and safe. What had produced the miracle? Sea power—a great navy patrolling the lanes of the sea, and keeping the sea's broad highway wide open. If the British Navy had not been powerful enough to do this, it is incon-



© Photo by American Press Ass'n.
GUN CREW OF THE U. S. S. "PENNSYLVANIA," WHICH BROKE THE MARKSMANSHIP RECORD OF THE U. S. NAVY

(Recently the *Pennsylvania's* gunners scored five hits on an invisible target, eleven miles distant, with a broadside of twelve fourteen-inch guns—which was hailed as a world's record)

ceivable to what depths of depression American foreign trade would have fallen in the last two years. Pending the depression of the last half of 1914, there were 350,000 idle men in New York City alone. There were literally millions of workers unemployed all through the country. Factories closed. Wheels stopped going round. Railroads ran on half- and quarter-time. To-day, factories are running on three time shifts. There is not an idle wheel in the United States, and there is hardly an unemployed person, who can work, from Atlantic to Pacific. Wages are the highest ever known in the history of the country. Why? Because the sea lanes opened and permitted Uncle Sam to feed, clothe, and provision the warring world.

When Colonel Thompson warned the Navy League at its convention last April that the sea was no longer a barrier against danger to the United States, but had become a broad highway, more easily traversed by a hostile power than the rail route from New York to Chicago, people turned the deprecating smile that men of affairs always reserve for the far-sighted visionary. Yet—was it so very far-sighted after all? Colonel Thompson uttered his warning last April. The submarine commerce-destroyer began operations off Nantucket in October—six months from Colonel Thompson's warning. One is really constrained to ask, is it far vision on the part of the Navy men, or short memory on the part of the American public?

Keeping those facts in mind, what happened to us in 1914 when the sea lanes

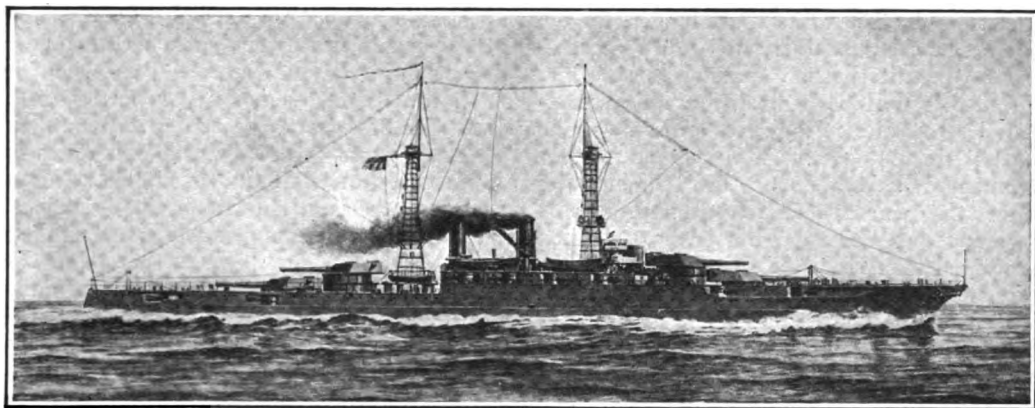
closed, what happened in 1915 and '16 when the sea lanes opened, and what is impending now that the submarine commerce-destroyers are on this side—it seems inconceivable that any American in his right senses can question the spendings on the American Navy. Yet the fear is prevalent that, before the building of Uncle Sam's new navy is well under way, navy appropriations by future Congresses may be cut and curtailed in a way to obstruct Uncle Sam's sea lanes out to the commerce of the world.

Let us see what those spendings are. The total Navy and Army appropriation for 1916 was something

over \$685,000,000, of which less than half was for the Navy—the Navy that is our sentry and guard at this end of the sea lanes—say \$315,000,000 to \$325,000,000, perhaps a little more; for the bill provides certain increases up to 20 per cent. to insure speed and efficiency. At a gambler's outside limit, put the Navy figure at \$350,000,000. How does that compare with other spendings in the United States? Here are some of the other spendings:

Liquor	\$2,200,000,000
Tobacco	1,200,000,000
Jewelry	800,000,000
Motors	500,000,000
Candy.....	} \$333,000,000
Soft Drinks.....	
Chewing Gum.....	
Tea.....	
Coffee.....	} \$270,000,000
Millinery.....	
Patent Nostrums.....	

To all of which compare \$350,000,000 spent on the Navy; on the guardian who stands at our gates; on the policeman who is to patrol our seas and protect our commerce; on the magician, who insures good prices for the cotton-grower and the wheat-farmer and the factory-worker! Look at the spendings from liquor to patent pills! Then look at the Navy spendings! Which does the most for the nation? Which does the most for the Middle West, and the Northwest, and the South—for the wheat farm and the cotton plantation and the beef ranch and the sheep run? Which does the most for you



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THE SUPERDREADNOUGHT "TENNESSEE," AS SHE WILL LOOK WHEN COMPLETED

(Another powerful battleship of the *Arizona* class soon to be laid down)

and for me—and I don't care whether you live with your feet in the salt sea, or handle wool in the desert, 3000 miles from the Atlantic Coast line? Just waken up and ask yourself the question; and don't go to sleep again till you answer it!

THE SHIPS OF THE NEW NAVY

All the same, exactly what, and specifically what is Uncle Sam going to get in return for his big Navy Bill?

Exactly and specifically, first of all, he is to get under way before July, 1919:

10 first-class battleships
6 battle-cruisers
10 scout-cruisers
50 destroyers
9 fleet submarines (deep sea)
53 coast submarines
13 auxiliary vessels

Of these, four battleships, four battle-cruisers, four scouts, twenty destroyers, thirty coast "subs," and several auxiliaries are to be begun within six months from August, 1916; and 20 per cent. above specified prices will be permitted to insure speed in construction and efficiency. If there be any salt-sea pride left in our sluggish land blood, the proportions of these vessels should stir it. The battle-cruisers are to be 100 feet longer than the Woolworth building is high. Their displacement will be 35,000 tons, and they will have a speed of 35 knots. Also, they will each carry ten 14-inch guns. Being a landlubber, those figures don't mean much more to you than they do to me. Let us put it in land terms! All right—those cruisers

will be able to carry as many seamen as the Woolworth houses tenants. They will travel as fast as the Century Express; and their guns will be able to toss a little shell, weighing 1400 pounds, any trifling distance from eight to twelve miles. In fact, those guns will be able to toss two such shots a minute. If they are ranged the longer distance, the smashing power will not be as great as at eight or ten miles. If you figure the cost of each shot at \$1000, and each of the ten guns fires two shots a minute, and the battle lasts, say two hours—modern sea battles are terribly swift—you can figure up a total cost for shells to make a peace-at-any-price man have goose-flesh; but when he has his worst shivers, figure again! All the shells a battle-cruiser can fire will not compare to one day's loss if the sea lanes are closed against our commerce. All the loss of life the battle-cruiser's shells can cause cannot compare to the death toll of poverty and want when commerce stops, and the factory wheels cease to go round. If you doubt that, compare the deaths from want in Armenia to the deaths from shots in the Dardanelles!

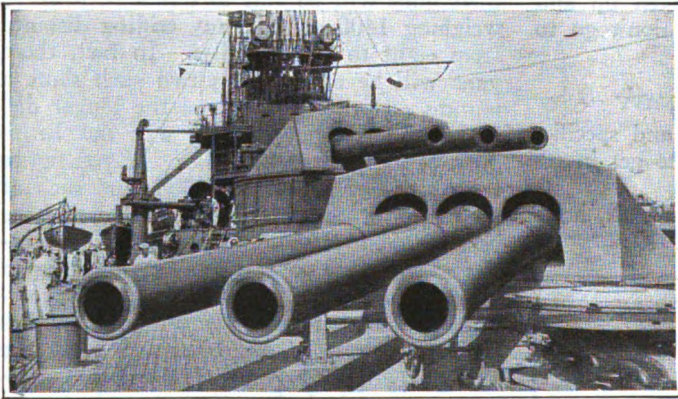
As to the tonnage of these modern leviathans, 35,000 tons displacement doesn't mean much to a landsman. Put it in terms of the railroad! A 35-ton freight-car is big. The battle-cruisers will weigh as much as 1000 such freight-cars, or fifty trains of such cars. A few years ago, we thought a million dollars a big capitalization. These battle-cruisers will cost about \$16,500,000 each, with \$4,000,000 more for armor and armaments, and 20 per cent. excess for speed and efficient construction.

It will surprise the layman to be told that the battleships will be 200 feet shorter than

the cruisers. The cruisers are longer, to give space for the machinery to insure speed—also to permit sharper, speedier lines. The armor-belt will be eight inches thick, compared to the English cruisers' nine inches thick. What the European governments have done in shipbuilding since the war began is an impenetrable secret; but before the war, British cruisers had a speed of thirty knots, a displacement of 28,500 tons, and a length of 720 feet; German cruisers had a speed of thirty knots, a displacement of 26,200 tons, and a length of 689 feet; Japanese cruisers a speed of twenty-seven knots, a displacement of 27,500 tons, and a length of 680 feet.

TREMENDOUS GUN-POWER

Just here a lot of fine points come in naval construction that will interest the public



THE BIG 14-INCH GUNS ON THE "PENNSYLVANIA"

more and more as naval development goes on. The cruiser is for speed; the dreadnought for invulnerable smashing power. When armor-plating was invented, men said—"here is an end to gun power"; but along came the invention of bigger and bigger, and higher and higher velocity projectiles; and it became a race between the development of the big gun and the development of armor-plate. When you can fire a projectile weighing 2700 pounds from an 18-inch gun ten or twelve miles at an initial velocity of, say 2700 feet a second, any armor-plating known to science is penetrated instantaneously. In the race the big gun won. So to evade the big gun, the next tendency is not to clog speed with overweighted armor-plate. Armor-plate will be thinner, speed greater. This is one of the great lessons of the present war—the distance of range is increasing

at a rate to beggar fancy. This simply means bigger and bigger guns with a fiercer propulsion.

In the Russo-Japanese War battles were won with 850-pound projectiles thrown 6000 to 8000 yards. To-day, 1800-pound projectiles are hurled 10,000 to 20,000 yards—the distance being chosen purely by the effectiveness of the smash at the target. That is, the range-finder, say an aeroplane or hydroplane, may locate the enemy at nineteen miles, and the projectile might find the target; but at ten miles—the usual extreme fighting range—the smashing power would be irresistible. I am aware this is not the language in which an expert would put it; but it is the language that is understandable to landlubbers like myself.

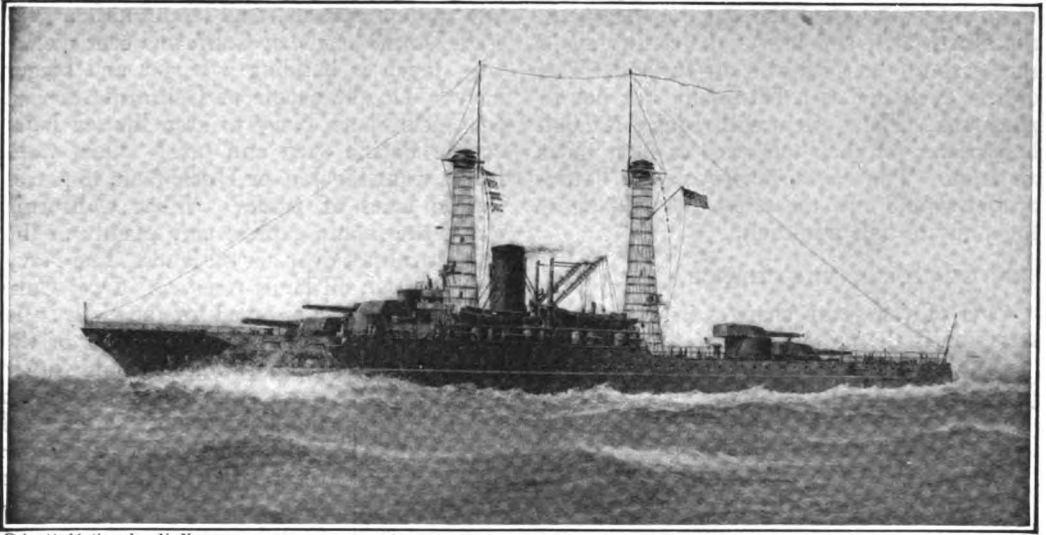
I asked a Navy gun expert how the calibre of the guns varied with the weight of the projectiles. His answer was not a plain *yea* or *nay*, but guardedly, to the effect that the 14-inch gun would take care of 1400 pounds, the 16-inch gun of a ton, the 18-inch gun of 2700 pounds; and he said he would gamble on a good 16-inch gun finding its target twenty-five miles away. Keep in mind that range is conditioned by effectiveness of the smashing power; and do you take in what such ranges imply? Just think a second! A hostile fleet could lie off New York, or Baltimore, or Boston fifteen miles, and drop

2700-pound projectiles into our coast cities that would knock down every building flat in twenty-four hours. I do not know what has been done in the United States since the war broke out; but I do know that before the war there was not a coast gun in the United States that exceeded ten to twelve miles in range.

REQUIREMENTS OF BATTLESHIPS AND CRUISERS

Do you take in what that means? It means a powerful enemy could come easily over the highways of the sea against us and knock us flat before we could get one blow back at him. That is what an adequate Navy means to Uncle Sam. That is what he is going to get out of his spendings—a certainty against danger on the seas.

It may be stated that all modern naval



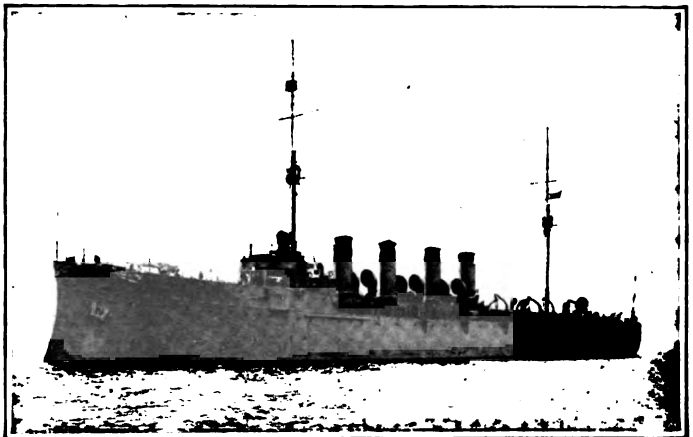
© by E. Muller, Jr., N. Y.

THE SUPERDREADNOUGHT "NEW MEXICO," AS SHE WILL APPEAR WHEN FINISHED
(This great new battleship of Uncle Sam's Navy is now about fifty per cent completed)

development dates from the cheese-box fight between the *Monitor* and the *Merrimac*. It was armor-plate against gun-fire. Now it is speed against the big gun. The dreadnought stands for big gun primarily—fighting invincibility first, and speed second. The cruiser stands for speed first, and fighting terror second. In the 1900's, battleships of the first line had a displacement of 12,000 tons, a speed of eighteen knots, guns of twelve inches, and range of 6000 to 8000 yards. Since the British built their first dreadnought, in 1905, tonnage has trebled, speed doubled, and gun-range pretty nearly quadrupled. One hundred of our boasted *Oregons* to-day could not defeat one dreadnought. This does not mean that Uncle Sam will have to scrap twenty-five vessels formerly of the first line. Some ought to be sent to the junk-heap; but none will ever again be fit for battle against first-line ships. They must be matched against vessels of their class.

The big battleship must have the heaviest gun-power and the thickest armor. The cruiser's first requisite is speed; but she, too, must have heavy gun-power, for she will first engage and hem the enemy, which the dreadnought will knock to pieces. Guns in a dreadnought weigh from sixty to seventy tons. She has a floating population of from

1100 to 1200 men. The aim of the cruiser, as distinguished from the battleship, is to go heavily armed, but lightly armored, and scout with speed through the enemy's screen for information and position. The cruiser is as much of a dreadnought as she dare be, while playing the part primarily of scout. When battleships cannot prowl in pairs, the cruiser pokes her nose into the mist and goes out. She must have fuel-capacity for long runs. She must have speed to get away from the enemy. She must have great guns for long-range attack or defense. Guns and speed are her prime equipment. Her armor must always be thin; so she is easily sunk. She is the ideal patrol for the sea lanes of trade. It was the cruiser that won the battle off the



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THE SCOUT-CRUISER "CHESTER"
(Ten more of these scout-cruisers are to be built with the new appropriation)

Falklands, and saved the day for Beatty in the North Sea; and it was the cruiser again that got into the thick of it off Jutland. The cruiser is as big as a battleship, but not so powerful. The cruisers will require 180,000 horsepower for their top speed of forty miles an hour. The engine-power of one battle-cruiser would run the street-cars and lights for a city of half a million.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE CHANGE TO OIL FUEL

One of the great changes in Navy construction is the use of oil instead of coal for

lack of fuel caused by oil-land flotation gen-try? Do the people of California ever realize why Japan is building a bigger and bigger navy? Do the people of California depend on Uncle Sam's Navy to keep the sea lanes of the Pacific open and safe? Does California want the Jap, or Uncle Sam, to patrol Pacific lanes of trade? What California wants she should express very plainly in the present contest over her oil lands. The Navy needs certain oil lands reserved. Does California want these reserved for the Navy? If so, she should wake up; for no part of the

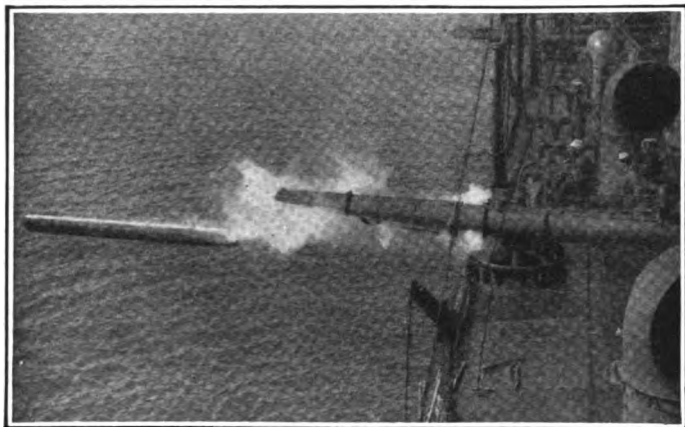
United States would suffer more from an enemy across the highways of the sea than California. Her cities are coast cities. Her wealth is beyond dreams. Her sovereignty is remote. California knows her danger, and should act in the oil-land contest.

But here comes in another consideration. Ask great engineers like Henry Doherty, and they will tell you that science is solving the problem of oil and gasoline fuels. Henry Doherty declares it proved beyond question that the waste in by-products of gas, oil, and coal distillation would run every

battleship and motor in the world for a century. The problem of oil fuels is a product that will serve at moderate temperature—I believe the scientific way to put it is, that will boil and distil at low temperatures.

RELATIVE RANK OF WORLD NAVIES

Granted we build the Navy as planned by Congress, where shall we rank with Japan, Germany, Great Britain? It is hard to answer this question, for the Navy manuals preceding the war are obsolete. Germany, England, and Japan have been building feverishly, and secretly, for almost three years. Also, vessels which we have hitherto ranked as first fighting-line ships in the United States Navy can no longer be so regarded, except for Fourth of July school orations. No American Navy officer dare give out the facts; but if you root around among experts, who know, you will find there are now many vessels, big and little, of Uncle Sam's sea fighters which ought to be discarded as obsolete. Counting these out, the relative rank of the different world navies stands



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THE LATEST MODEL 10,000-YARD TORPEDO BEING FIRED FROM THE DESTROYER "O'BRIEN"

fuel. This necessitates new naval bases and tank auxiliaries. Oil becomes the very food and drink of the Navy; and in this fact lies one of the greatest dangers menacing Uncle Sam's new Navy. Motors are exhausting oil supplies at an enormous rate. The world's oil-fields are now known, mapped and tapped. Within the lifetime of this generation oil will be scarce. Where, then, is the new Navy of defense to get its fuel? In answer to that question enters the curse of an efficient Navy—politics. The Government has segregated in Southern California oil-fields sufficient to supply the Navy's needs. These are federal lands. But railroads also use oil. And the big motor companies covet oil; and promoters and squatters and swindlers also have their eyes on those oil-fields. It does not lessen the danger to the Navy in the least that there is an underground pipe-line running from the squatters and promoters and swindlers up to Senators and Congressmen.

The point is—do the people of the United States want a Navy, for which in one year they are paying \$315,000,000, endangered by

thus (the diagram is not mine—it was compiled by one of the foremost experts in the country):

since the war began wages have quadrupled in Germany and Great Britain; so there is no basis of comparison; but this we do know

RANK OF WORLD FLEETS

(May 1, 1916—Built, Building, and Authorized)

	British		German		American		Japanese		French	
	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons
Dreadnoughts	36	848,350	22	521,822	17	527,450	6	165,240	17	427,196
Battle-cruisers	16	344,700	9	226,924	0	4	110,000	0
Total, first line.....	52	1,193,050	31	748,746	17	527,450	10	275,240	17	427,196

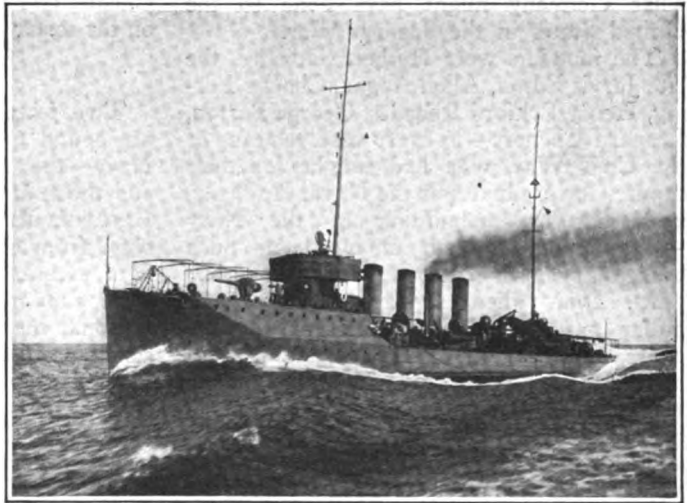
To these should be added vessels built by Germany and Great Britain in 1915 and 1916. While all German and British dreadnoughts are completed, only twelve American are completed, and two—the *California* and *Tennessee*—though authorized in March, 1915, have hardly been begun. The last American Naval Bill authorized four dreadnoughts and four cruisers to be begun within six months from date of approval—August 29, 1916. It takes three years to build a battleship in America, and six months to fit her and test her out; so these eight ships will not be ready till 1920. The Naval Bill provides for six more battle-ships, and two more battle-cruisers, to be laid down prior to July 1, 1919; but in this case, the President is simply “authorized” to undertake their construction, and no money has been appropriated for them. The next Congress might decide not to carry out the naval program. It is not yet known whether the ships will be built by contract or in government yards. Bids will not all be decided till December. Meantime, we are dependent on a foreign power to patrol our sea lanes. The cruisers will run in cost from \$16,500,000 to \$20,000,000; the battleships from \$11,500,000 to \$15,000,000.

Only an amateur would attempt to set down a scale of cost compared to Germany, Great Britain, and Japan. Before the war the scale of wages could not be compared. Japan paid from 40 cents a day to \$3, compared to our scale of \$3 to \$8. We have an eight-hour day and thirty holidays in government works besides thirty days’ leave. Imagine that in Japan or Germany! Also

—we yearly squander in “pork,” in rivers without water, and harbors without ships; we yearly squander in pensions on skulkers, who never smelt powder, more than Germany or Japan yearly spend on their navies.

THE NAVY LEAGUE

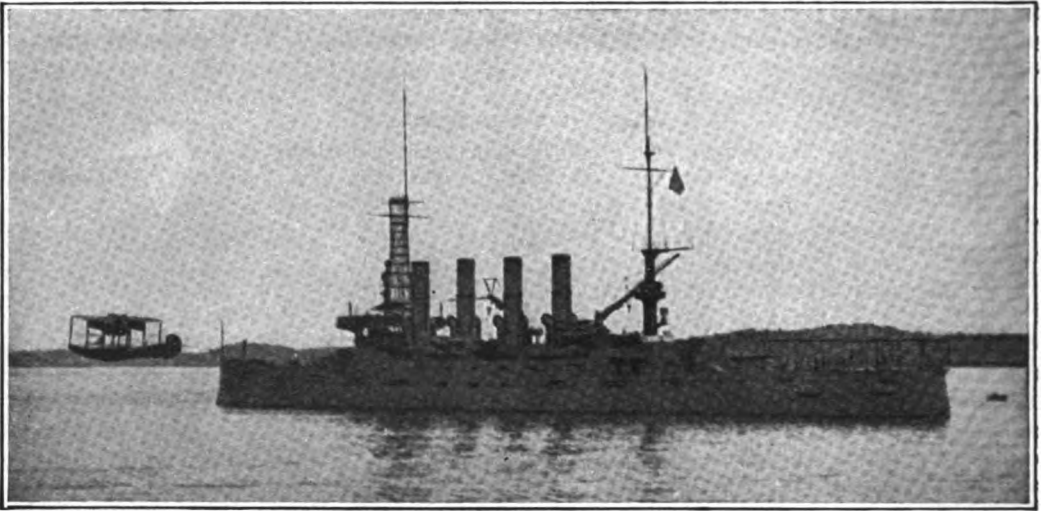
When Uncle Sam’s big Navy Bill was pending, why did the Japanese jingoes attack it so furiously? What difference did it



© by E. Muller, Jr., N. Y.

U. S. S. “BENHAM,” ONE OF OUR LATEST OIL-BURNING DESTROYERS, SPEEDING AT 33 KNOTS

make to them? Why did the German propagandists attack it so furiously? What difference did it make to them? For instance, it was a German propagandist who first circulated the infamous lie that munition men were behind the Navy League. Now the facts are these: The Navy League was begun—it could scarcely be called “founded,” so informal was the movement—back in 1900-1901 by half a dozen men, who had been naval officers, and had seen what the Navy League was doing in England in 1899, and



© by International Film Service.

A NAVY HYDROAEROPLANE LEAVING THE U. S. BATTLESHIP "NORTH CAROLINA" AT EASTPORT, MAINE, FOR A SCOUTING EXPEDITION

(The U. S. Navy officials have been experimenting for some time with the successful launching of an airship from the specially constructed gangway for the hydroaeroplane, and the picture shows that they have obtained the desired results. This is the first picture taken showing the airship leaving a U. S. war vessel)

what Germany might have done to the United States in the Spanish War.

The founders were Herbert Satterlee, the late Jarvis Edson, Allen Apgar, Charles Loring, Henry Eckford Rhoades, George Barton, Leonard Chenery—in every case veterans of the Civil War, who had fought for their country, or graduates of the Naval Academy, keen for the upbuilding of the Navy—not a munition man among them. Such charges against patriots come with bad grace from alien propagandists. Every dollar put up was from personal pocket-books, and the first year's spendings did not exceed \$500. Gradually, public-spirited men came into the league, though men like Schwab, and Farrell, who probably know more about ordnance, and armor, and shipbuilding than all experts put together, refrained from active participation purely to avoid such charges. I think this a great loss to the League, and an unnecessary loss. It seems to me the services of such men would be invaluable in any National Council of Defense, and would be so utilized in any country where leather-lunged blatherskites do not make the welkin ring.

Since 1903, when formal organization was effected, the Navy League has grown to 300,000 members, and to-day has 1000 committee men and women, thirty-seven State committees, 13,000 active working members, 210,000 associate members. It would be hard to find any name of national prominence, from Theodore Roosevelt to Joseph

Choate, and Cardinal Gibbons, which is not on the roster of the Navy League.

CIVILIAN CRUISES

Two features of the Navy League work are bound to react in public support of the Navy—the civilian cruises of midsummer, and the training of women in defense work. Last summer, 2000 civilians, of whom half were from the Middle West, took training in a vacation cruise. The civilian recruits were club men, athletes, college boys, professional men; and it would take a professional pacifist to find out what harm came from a month in the open, under washed skies, where the richest fellows rubbed elbows with the poorest man, and both alike obeyed orders, from swabbing decks to tightening a careless shoe-lace. The charge was merely nominal—\$30 for board and clothes. This cruise was in midsummer, and plans are under consideration for cruises in which boys can participate who are too busy to go in summer.

Such cruises are the best evangel of the Navy as a career for a boy. When "mother's pampered darling" is trained to stand erect and use backbone instead of jawbone, and take the knocks that come in every-day life, elbow to elbow with the boy who has learned all that he knows from hard knocks—there is no ground for the outcry about the brutalizing effect of military training. The "sissy" will have manhood knocked into him, and the little beast will have the beast

knocked out of him, and the skulking nonentity will at least learn to stand erect, a part of the scheme of things. Nor is there a ghost of ground for the foolish accusation that the snobbery of Navy life excludes the poor boy. The poorest boy in the land can go into the Navy at \$18 to \$20 and \$30 a month and his keep, and rise to be a commissioned officer at \$1700 a year by the time he is twenty-three. What other life offers as good a chance for the poor boy to rise? If space permitted, examples could be given of the very biggest men in the Navy rising by sheer force and merit. To be sure, the poor boy has to work; and if he will not study or work up, the place for him is to stay down. The Navy has no soft cushion berths for boobs and snobs. It is harden and rise, or get out. Up to the present, the difficulty has not been to get recruits for the Navy; it has been to get authority from Congress for enough recruits.

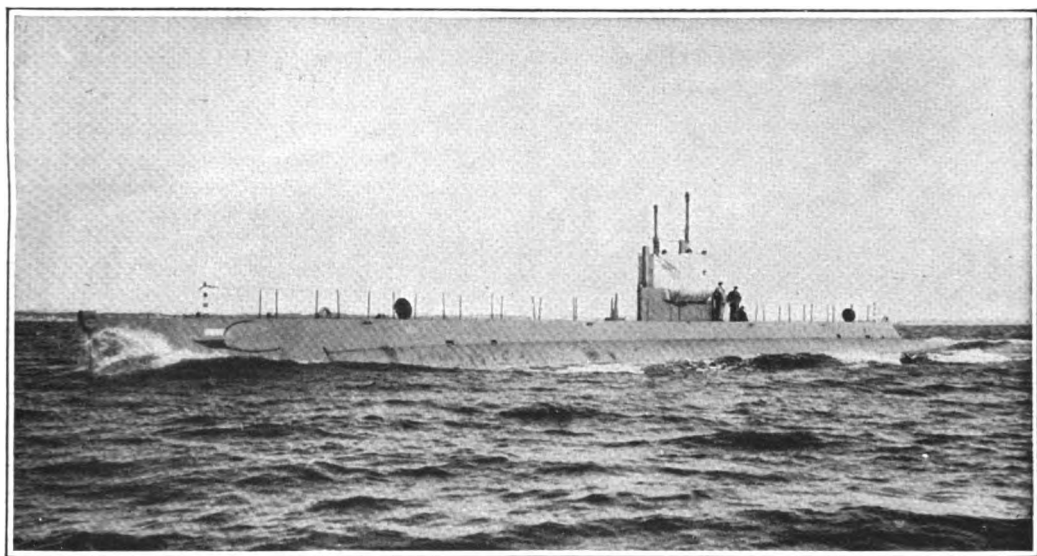
LESSONS FROM THE WAR

From all of which it is evident a new spirit is abroad in Uncle Sam's Navy. What lessons has the new Navy learned from the war? As mentioned already, more speed, and longer-ranged guns as against massiveness. In other words, the paramount impor-

tance of the battle-cruiser. Also, certain lessons in sloping shots off the turret by making the turret so horizontal that the shell "won't bite," but may ricochet off, on the principle that if you throw a pointed thing at a sloped surface you'll dent it. On the horizontal surface, it may slide off. In navy terms, get the armored surfaces so the projectile will not "bite." Also certain lessons in bulkheads, and division in the body; so if a shell hurls through, the inflooding rush of waters can be impounded and sequestered instead of swamping the ship. We have also learned certain lessons in shutting off explosions from striking shells. There are also certain inventions to forewarn the approach of submarines and aeroplanes. These are, however, technical points. Big questions in which the public is vitally interested are—as the gun has beaten armor-plate, is there any chance of Zeppelin, submarine, and hydroaeroplane defeating the function of the dreadnought?

RELATIVE ADVANTAGES OF ZEPPELIN AND SUBMARINE

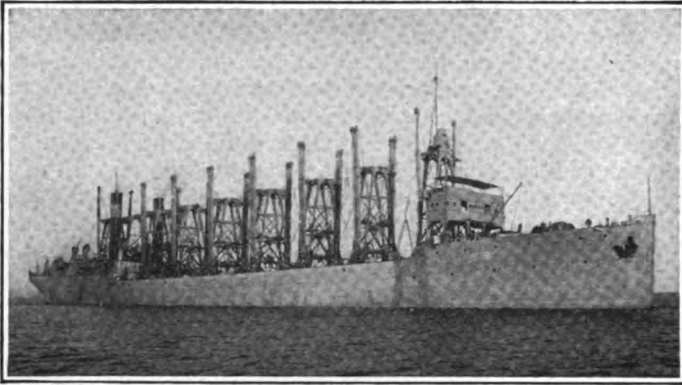
No human being can answer that question definitely yes or no. Here are the disadvantages of each of the new weapons of warfare?



© Photo by Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

UNCLE SAM'S BIGGEST SUBMARINE, THE "M-1", WHICH CAN COVER 6,000 MILES WITHOUT REPLENISHING FUEL OR SUPPLIES

(In a choppy sea and with half a gale sweeping over Cape Cod Bay off Provincetown, Mass., the largest submarine ever built in the United States had a severe test in submerging and diving, and in every way came up to expectations. The "M-1" was out in the bay four hours, and when she returned, Lieut. M. R. Pierce, of the U. S. Navy, who is to command her, said: "She is the best submarine I have ever been aboard of." The builders have guaranteed that the submarine has a cruising radius of 3,500 miles, although it is said she can easily cover six thousand miles without replenishing fuel or supplies. She is equipped with two Diesel engines, with a combined horsepower of 900, and two motors of 170 horsepower each. She cost \$620,000. The "M-1" has a surface speed of 14 knots an hour and an underwater speed of 11 knots. With safety she can descend to a depth of 150 feet, and will be able to remain submerged for a period of seventy-two hours)



© by E. Muller, Jr., N. Y.

ONE OF OUR LATEST COLLIERIES, U. S. S. "JUPITER"

The submarine is blind. It cannot work at night.

A Zeppelin can make long flights; but it is so noisy that auditory detectors can always forewarn its approach. It can also be overtaken and destroyed by the swifter and

things Uncle Sam's new Navy will embody. Personally, I think he is going to get his money's worth—certainly a great deal more in returns than he gets for his spendings on liquor and chewing-gum and candy.

more agile aeroplane. The Zeppelin is too cumbersome to be dependable eyes for a fleet. Like the hawk, the Zeppelin will always be a bird of small prey. Neither the submarine nor the Zeppelin can ever carry enough torpedoes to act independent of a home base. Neither can carry thick armor-plate to defend themselves. They are fearfully frail in making an attack.

Such is the briefest outline of some of the new



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THE KIND OF BATTLESHIPS WE BUILT A HUNDRED YEARS AGO

(The old United States frigate *Franklin* was burned Monday, October 2, at Eastport, Me., by a salvage company to recover the copper in her rivets and also about \$4,000 worth of gold which is said to be contained in her copper. The *Franklin* was sold by the Government for \$16,766. The old frigate was built at Philadelphia in 1815, and was 188 feet long, with a 50-foot beam. In 1863 she was rebuilt and had an engine and screws installed. Her hull was also made over and was 265 feet long, with a 53-foot and eight-inch beam. The *Franklin's* tonnage was 3,173, displacement 5,170 tons, and cost \$1,331,000. As flagship of the European squadron, the *Franklin* sailed from New York, June 28, 1867, with Admiral Farragut on board, for a cruise to European waters, lasting about seventeen months, and during this time visited nearly every large seaport there, and also visited several ports in Asia and Africa)



MECCA, BIRTHPLACE OF MOHAMMED, THE MOST HOLY CITY OF ISLAM

ARABS VERSUS TURKS

WILL THERE BE AN INDEPENDENT ARABIA?

BY ISAAC DON LEVINE

AT the outbreak of the war in 1914 Arabia still presented a conglomerate picture of dependent, semi-dependent, and independent political divisions. Syria, Mesopotamia, and Hedjaz were under Turkish domination. These three provinces also constituted the most civilized parts of Arabia. In Syria, where Christianity made more headway than in any other part of the Ottoman empire, many miles of railroads had been built. In Mesopotamia, the Constantinople-Bagdad railway, the completion of which was interrupted by the war, proved a potent civilizing factor. And, finally, even in Hedjaz, where the holy cities of Mecca and Medina are located, a railroad was being constructed. At the southern tip of the Arabian peninsula is Aden, guarding the entrance into the Red Sea, and an absolute dependency of Great Britain. So also is El Katr, on the Persian Gulf. North of it is El Hasa, a Turkish dependency now under the influence of Nejd.

North of Aden, on the Red Sea, lies Yamen, whose history goes back 2500 B. C. and where Christianity was introduced long

before the Prophet was born, only to be swept away with the arrival of Mohammedanism. An unhappy region is Yamen, torn by internal strife and frequent rebellion against Turkey, which was trying to control the province inhabited by industrious Arabs and Jews. But Turkey never succeeded in wresting complete control of Yamen at the expense of the Imam of the region, who claims direct descent from Mohammed. In 1913 an agreement was reached between the Imam and Turkey by which the Ottoman governor was recognized by the Imam officially, the latter retaining full control of all internal affairs. Thus Yamen should be classified as a semi-dependency of Turkey, as also is Asir, located on the Red Sea between Yamen and Hedjaz, in which the rebel chief Idrisi is still in arms against both Turkey and the Imam of Yamen. Oman, on the Gulf of Oman, is an independent kingdom, with British leanings.

The heart of the Arabian peninsula, however, is still free of any foreign yoke. Turkey never penetrated deeper than the outer shell of the peninsula, and Turkish knowl-

edge of it is even less than that of Europe, which is mighty little. The northern half of the inner part of the Arabian peninsula is known as Nejd. Nejd is bounded by Hedjaz, the Syrian desert, Mesopotamia, and the Persian Gulf on three sides. As its southern boundary the 23° N. latitude may be taken. Nejd is the only real independent entity in Arabia. Its Emir, a scion of the Saoad dynasty, a young man of about twenty-four, is described as a "dashing, crafty leader." This desert kingdom never had acknowledged Turkish rule. Its nomadic subjects look up to the Emir of Najd as the champion of Arabian freedom. No information whatever had reached the outside world on the attitude of Nejd toward the Arabian revolution engineered by the Sherif of Mecca. South of Nejd, between Yamen and Oman, lies the so-called Empty Quarter, the most arid part of the peninsula, void of any kind of habitation, where life, whether natural, political or other, has no soil on which to thrive.

The situation in Arabia, Syria, and the Levant now presents two phases, each of which represents a distinctly individual and independent force in the revolutionary movement among the Arabs. One of these two phases is religious, the other political. The first deals with those currents of thought and action in the Moslem world that are responsible for the failure of the Jihad, or the Holy War, proclaimed in 1914 by the Sheik-ul-Islam under the influence of the Sultan of Turkey. The second is concerned with the nationalist movements in Greater Arabia and the interests of France, Russia, and Great Britain in that territory. A study of the two phases will reveal the causes of the present revolution in Arabia, its full significance, and its probable effects on Turkey and, consequently, on the Great War.

ARABIAN NATIONALISM

The Arabian nationalist movement is a little more than twenty years old. In 1895 there came into existence in Paris the Arabian National Committee, one of the chief founders of which was Moustapha Kamel Pasha, that brilliant young Egyptian who had devoted all his life to the regeneration of the Arabian people. The aims and purposes of the Arabian Nationalists were set forth in a manifesto issued by them some years later, which said in part:

The Arabs . . . are awakened to their historical national and ethnographical homogeneity, and aim to separate themselves from

the Ottoman body and form an independent state. This new Arabian state will be confined to its natural boundaries, from the Tigris and Euphrates to the Suez Canal, and from the Mediterranean Sea to the Sea of Oman. It will be governed by a liberal constitutional monarchy of an Arabian sultan.

It will be seen from the words of this manifesto that the future independent Arabian nation was not to be confined to geographical Arabia, but was to include all those possessions of the Turkish empire where the majority of the population was Arabian. Thus, Syria, the Levant, Palestine were all to become part of the new Arabia. However, the vilayet of Hedjah and the district of Medjina were to become an independent state, the sovereign of which would also be the religious Caliph of all the Moslems. This latter plan was a solution of the difficult problem presented in the Moslem world by the religious power held by the Turkish Sultan as the Caliph in Islam. The autonomy of the Levant was to be respected, and the places in Palestine sacred to Christendom were to retain their status quo. Such an Arabian state would contain a population of about twelve million, 85 per cent. of which would be Moslem.

Negib Azoury Bey, one of the leaders of the Arabian nationalists, in his sensational book "*Le Réveil de la Nation Arabe*," published in Paris in 1905, went as far as to include Mesopotamia in the projected Arabia and to deny all Jewish claims to Palestine. His dream was a united Arabia, independent, progressive, a force in civilization, a cradle for the renaissance of Arabian art, literature, and science. It was then that the Young Arabians began to exert considerable influence on the Arabian people. Especially was this influence marked in Syria, where the nationalist movement gained more momentum than anywhere else.

ADVERSE INFLUENCES—THE YOUNG TURKS

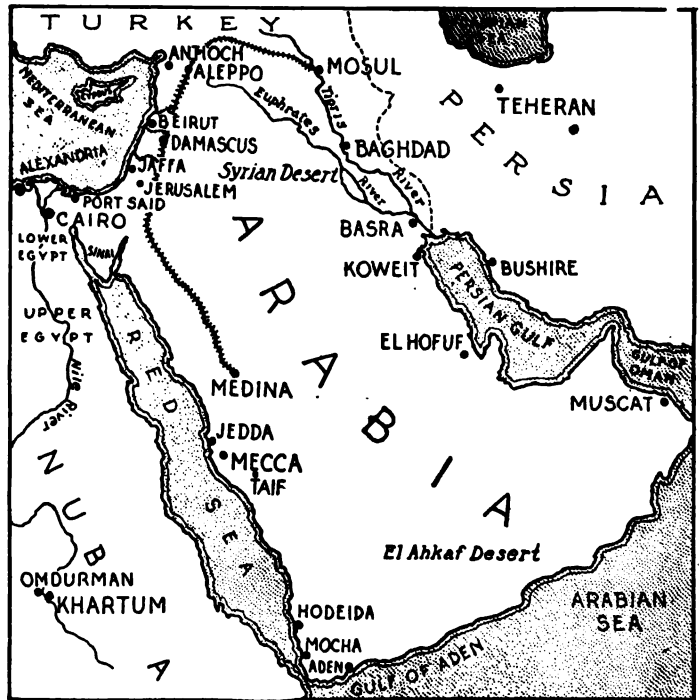
A setback to the revolutionary activities of the Young Arabs was the Turkish Revolution. When the Young Turks turned Turkey into a constitutional monarchy, the Arabs expected some kind of an autonomy for Arabia from the new government. The hopes of the Arabs ran high. They were represented to a large extent in the Turkish Parliament. But it was not very long before the policies of the Young Turks became clear. The Arabian Club, formed in 1908 at Constantinople, was the institution representing those elements among the Arabs,

who demanded, at least, cultural autonomy from the Young Turks. There is no need to enlarge on the attitude of the latter toward the nationalities inhabiting Turkey. That attitude resembled closely the Prussian attitude toward the Polish population of Prussia. The Turkish "kultur" was to be disseminated by all means among the population of the Ottoman empire. Armenians, Arabs, Jews were to be "Ottomanized" and fused into one political and spiritual organism with the Turks. The result of this program was the re-awakening of the nationalist movement among the Arabs. In 1913 there was held in Paris an Arabian Congress, and the revolutionary activities in Syria and Arabia were resumed.

EUROPEAN CLAIMS AND INTERESTS

Along with these internal agitations of the Arabs, which have now culminated in the revolution, there were also going on the German, French, British, and Russian activities, mainly intrigues, in the Turkish empire. Germany was interested in the Berlin-to-Bagdad railroad project, and her agents were infesting Arabia from the Mediterranean to the Persian Gulf. Great Britain, in order to secure her Indian possessions and the Aden Protectorate, was seeking to acquire Arabia, thus making the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf British in their entirety. France has long had more than a passing interest in Syria and the Levant. Russia was still concerned with Armenian Turkey.

Perhaps of all the claims these European powers had in Asiatic Turkey none was more justified than that of France in Syria. For France bases her claims on the work of civilization she had carried on in Syria for nearly a century. *Compte Cressaty*, in the April, 1915, issue of the *Revue Politique et Parlementaire* (Paris), makes out in his article on "France and the Syrian Question" a very strong case for the French acquisition of Syria. The dominant European language in Syria is French. There are as many pupils in French schools in Syria as in the schools of all other nations combined.



THE COUNTRY IN REVOLT FROM TURKEY

France had constructed in Syria and in the Levant about 800 kilometers of railway. And, finally, as well as chief among the reasons for French acquisition of Syria, is the feeling of the Arabs themselves. They are more inclined to France than to any other European nation.

With the fate of Turkey and German interests in the Near East sealed, there remain France, Great Britain, and Russia to divide the spoils. But Russia has no material interest in Arabia and Syria. And the Young Arabs are, therefore, confronted with the aspirations of France and Great Britain only. That these aspirations encroach upon their own nationalistic aspirations is apparent. That to resist France and Great Britain, or either of them, is an impossibility, was just as evident to the Young Arabs. The dilemma was by no means easy of solution. The best that they could do under the circumstances was to choose between the two. And Young Arabia has apparently chosen France.

A FRENCH PROTECTORATE PROPOSED

There appeared early in the year in Paris a book entitled "La Syrie de Demain." Its author is Narda Mutran, a Syrian Arab, a Christian, and one of the leaders of the Arabian nationalists. He was formerly one

of the most gifted advocates of an independent Arabian state. The conditions brought about by the war have modified his former views. And what he has to say concerning the future of Arabia is, in all probability, the view now held by most revolutionary Arabs of education.

Narda Mutran gives up the idea of an independent Arabian state, and proposes instead a French protectorate over Arabia and Syria. To this conclusion the author arrives after an extensive review of the situation as it is. France has Algeria, Tunis, Morocco, and it would be but logical for her to take over the Arabian population of the Turkish empire. France would have to grant the Arabs certain measures of self-government. She would let the Arabs develop their own civilization, their own culture, and would also bring to them the fruit of the western European civilization. He holds, then, that France is more entitled to Syria and Arabia than any other European nation.

SYRIAN GRATITUDE TO FRANCE

To substantiate this opinion of the author of "*La Syrie de Demain*," which, by the way, proved so popular in France that in a short time a second edition of the book was required, there is the fact that in the ranks of the French army about 800 Young Arabs are enlisted. These Arabs, most of them coming from Syria, have volunteered their services to France. No more striking proof of the affection the educated Arabs have for France and the gratefulness they feel for her work of civilization among the Arabs is necessary or possible. By giving their lives for France, these Syrians believe that they are also sacrificing themselves for a regenerated Arabia. They also believe that in return for their services France will have the interests of the Arabs at heart.

That this belief of the Syrian volunteers is not ill-founded has already been proved by events of the past few months. A recent despatch from Berne, Switzerland, tells of the arrival there of Syrian refugees who brought with them a proclamation of the Turkish commander in Syria, which shows the names of twenty prominent Syrians, including officers, magistrates, and journalists, who were sentenced to death for high treason and executed at Damascus and Beirut. In all about 200 persons have been executed by the Turkish authorities. Among these was Sheikh Abdul-Hamid Zehrawi, perhaps the leading Mohammedan identified with the Arab nationalist movement. The executed

Arabs all died with "*Vive la France*" on their lips. The Lebanon district has been surrounded by Turkish forces, according to information in possession of the Marquis of Crewe, recently disclosed by him before the House of Lords, and the inhabitants were on the point of starvation. The French Government, upon learning of conditions in Syria, through Premier Briand, requested the United States to inform Turkey that it would hold her responsible for the crimes reported to have been committed by her in Syria.

WHAT THE REVOLUTION MEANS

From a political point of view, then, the Arabian situation may be summarized thus: Political Arabia, revolutionary Arabia, that part of the Arabian people that has awakened to a nationalistic conscience and national aspirations, those Christian and Moslem Arabs who have been raised and educated in the European fashion, are for an autonomous Arabia, under a French protectorate, if independence is impossible. The chief significance of the revolution lies in the fact that it is a Pan-Arabian movement, and therefore not in accord with French designs on Syria. That the revolution now going on in Arabia is the product, to a large degree, of the activities of the Young Arabs is proved by the fact that the revolution is come on the heels of the wholesale executions in Syria by the Turkish authorities of Syrian intellectuals. Now, the revolt of last year in Syria was a purely political movement. That it has reverberated so deeply in Arabia speaks for the Arabian revolutionary activities. These activities, if they constitute the main force in the present revolution, may yet cause the establishment of an independent political Arabian state.

A CALIPHATE IN ARABIA

The religious force behind the events transpiring in Arabia at present is to be found in the reason for the failure of the Jihad. The Holy War failed because most of the Arabs do not acknowledge the Sultan of Turkey as the rightful Caliph in Islam, nor do most of the Indian and Russian Moslems recognize the Sultan as such. The Caliph is the spiritual leader in Islam. Any independent Arabian state would have to have in its midst or as its friend the Caliph. It is obvious that so long as the Sultan of Turkey is alone in claiming the right to the Caliphate he, in a measure, is a source of

constant menace to those powers in whose dominions there are large populations of Moslems. Great Britain and Russia have long felt this menace. They are interested therefore in creating a new Caliphate in Arabia. Such a Caliphate would be a countermove to the power held by the Sultan.

In this both Russia and Great Britain are helped by the Moslems under their rule. These Moslems have long felt a dislike for the Turks. Thousands of them, while on their annual pilgrimages to the Holy Places of Arabia, Mecca and Medina, have been exploited and robbed by the Turks. It was their ambition for some time to set the tomb of the prophet free from Turkish control, and the British campaign on the Tigris has even been ascribed to the desire of the Indian Moslems to utilize the opportunity for the accomplishment of that ambition. In this they have had the moral support of the Arabs of Mecca, Medina, and the surrounding country.

PROGRESS OF THE REVOLUTION

It was there that the revolution broke out. The leader of the movement is the Grand Sherif of Mecca, who claims to be the descendant of Mohammed through his daughter Fatima, and therefore possessing the chief requirement for becoming a Caliph. His three sons, all having a European education, are the military commanders of the revolutionary forces. The successes they have so far achieved are of considerable importance. One column has captured Jeddah, the main seaport of Arabia on the Red Sea. Another has taken possession of Kinfuda, a port 200 miles south of the first. Medina, where the tomb of Mohammed is contained, Mecca, the chief city of Arabia, and Taif, sixty-five miles southeast of Mecca, are all in the hands of the revolutionists. By destroying the roadbed of the Hedjah railway for a distance of a hundred miles the Arabs have cut themselves off completely from the Ottoman empire.

The most significant part about the revolt is the possession by the Arabs of all necessary equipment and ammunition. This has evidently been supplied them by the British, and their control of the ports of Jeddah and Kinfuda assures them of further aid from the same source. The manner in which the oper-

ations of the revolutionists are carried out indicates a European hand in the entire scheme. The immediate purpose of Great Britain's, Russia's, or France's aid to the revolutionists is, of course, to strike a blow at Turkey. Nothing could be more effective in bringing Turkey to a state of collapse than a successful revolution in Arabia. Syria, the Levant, and the other parts of the Turkish empire which have large Arabian populations will be caught in the revolutionary conflagration if it scores some notable successes against the Ottoman government. That the beginning of the end of the European war should come through such a channel is not at all improbable.



SHEIKH ABDUL-HAMID
ZEHRAWI, MOSLEM REVOLUTIONARY LEADER
(Executed by Turks in Damascus in 1915)

ENGLAND'S OPPORTUNITY

However, as it was pointed out before, Great Britain has more than a passing interest in Arabia. The fact that the head of the revolutionists is the Grand Sherif of Mecca would indicate that he has been slated by Great Britain for the post of a new Caliphate to be set up, probably in Mecca. Should Great Britain accomplish such a result, she would have attained a brilliant success. Its enormous Moslem population would no longer be a source of danger to her, as the new Caliph would remain not only her ally but, very likely, under her military and civil control. This would bring about Britain's ultimate possession of Arabia.

Turkey, if she should continue to exist, would become harmless after losing her power in Islam. To this extent Russia's interest in the Arabian revolution is more than temporary. France could claim Syria and the Levant, and would probably get them, if Britain succeeded in establishing, as in Persia, a "sphere of influence" in Arabia. The religious force engaged in the present revolution does not work in harmony, therefore, with the political-nationalistic force. While the latter demands at least an autonomous united Arabia, the former can bring about but a divided Arabia. Will these two forces combine and produce an independent Arabia? The answer depends on the degree of civilization of the leaders of the revolution, on the spirit that animates them, on their vision and intelligence.

INDEPENDENCE, POLITICAL AND
RELIGIOUS

The latest action of the revolutionary leaders bespeaks a range of vision and a degree of civilization on their part which promises the birth of an independent Arabia. The Grand Sherif of Mecca, the head of the revolutionary movement, has issued a proclamation in which the religious and political forces seem to have joined hands. In announcing a definite rupture between orthodox Mohammedans and those represented by the Committee of Union and Progress, which is now in control of Turkey, the proclamation makes reference to the Committee's disastrous alliance with Germany and, what is vastly more important, it mentions the government's executions in Syria, where, it will be remembered, the revolutionary movement is entirely political in its nature. "Independence and national rights" are words included in the proclamation along with the "Preservation of Islam." The text of the Grand Sherif's manifesto, addressed to "all our Moslem brothers," follows in part:

It is well known that of all the Moslem rulers and Emirs, the Emirs of Mecca, the Favored City, were the first to recognize the Turkish Government. . . . The Emirs continued to support the Ottoman Empire until the Society of Union and Progress appeared in the state and proceeded to take over the administration thereof and all its affairs, with the result that the state suffered a loss of territory which quite destroyed its prestige, as the whole world knows; was plunged into the horrors of this war, and brought to its present perilous position, as it is patent to all. . . .

All this evidently did not fulfil the designs of the Society of Union and Progress. They proceeded next to sever the essential bond between the Ottoman Sultanate and the whole Moslem community, to wit, adherence to the Koran and the Sunna. One of the Constantinople newspapers actually published an article maligning (God forgive us!) the life of the Prophet (on whom the prayer and peace of God), and this under the eye of the Grand Vizier and its Sheikh of Islam and all the Ulema, ministers and nobles! . . .

In spite of all, we accepted these innovations in order to give no cause for dissension and schism. But at last the veil was removed, and it became apparent that the empire was in the hands of Enver Pasha, Jemal Pasha, and Talaat Bey, who were administering it just as they liked, and treated it according to their own sweet will. . . . At one time they caused to be hanged twenty-one eminent and cultured Moslems and Arabs of distinction in addition to those they previously put to death. We might hear their excuse and grant them pardon for killing these worthy men; but how can we excuse them for

banishing under such pitiful and heart-breaking circumstances the families of their victims—infants, delicate women, and aged men—and inflicting on them other forms of suffering in addition to the agonies they had already endured in the death of those who were the support of their homes? Even if we could let all this pass, how is it possible to forgive them confiscating the property and money of those people after bereaving them of their dear ones?

We are determined not to leave our religious and national rights as a plaything in the hands of the Union and Progress party. God has vouchsafed this land an opportunity to rise in revolt, has enabled her by His power and might to seize her independence and crown her efforts with prosperity and victory, even after she was crushed by the maladministration of the Turkish civil and military officials. She stands quite apart and distinct from countries that still groan under the yoke of the Union and Progress government. She is independent in the fullest sense of the word, freed from the rule of strangers and purged of every foreign influence. Her principles are to defend the faith of Islam, to elevate the Moslem people, to found their conduct on the holy law, to build up the code of justice on the same foundation in harmony with the principles of religion, to practise its ceremonies in accordance with modern progress, to make a genuine revolution by sparing no pains in spreading education among all classes according to their station and needs.

This is the policy we have undertaken in order to fulfil our religious duty, trusting that all our brother Moslems in the East and West will pursue the same in fulfilment of their duty to us, and so strengthen the bonds of the Islamic brotherhood.

The kernel of the new Arabia has thus been created. With the increasing plight of Turkey, this kernel will grow and expand in all directions. The Arabian tribes who have not as yet joined the revolutionists will undoubtedly respond to the Grand Sherif's manifesto and flock to his banner. Turkey is powerless to prevent the growth of the movement. She has enough trouble as it is in Armenia and in Europe, where the entrance of Rumania into the war again places Constantinople in a precarious position. The Arabian state will therefore have the opportunity to gather strength and prepare to hold its own at the conclusion of peace in humanity. If the Arabs will present a united front at the expected peace conference, if they will have proved their ability to maintain order and responsible government, they will have the public opinion of the world backing their national claims. With such a power behind them, it is inconceivable that France and Great Britain should object to the regeneration of the Arabian nation.

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NAJEEB M. DIAB

Proprietor and Managing Editor
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U. S. A.

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جبال طوروس التي تتصلها من ارمينيا

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آسيا الصغرى ستكون حصة إيطاليا

دول الاحلاف يتفقون على إعطاء إيطاليا آسيا الصغرى كمكافأة لما فعلت في حادها
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PART OF THE "FRONT PAGE" OF A DAILY ARABIC NEWSPAPER PUBLISHED IN NEW YORK

SYRIANS AND ARABIANS IN AMERICA

IN standard dictionaries and encyclopedias the population of Syria is given as approximating three million. In actuality half that number has in recent years migrated from that unfortunate province of the Turkish Empire. And about three-fourths of these emigrants have crossed the Atlantic and settled in this hemisphere. There are said to be half a million Syrians in South America, chiefly in Brazil. Very large numbers are also to be found in Mexico and Cuba. There are approximately three hundred thousand Syrians and Arabians in the United States. They are located in considerable numbers in the States of New York, New Jersey, Massachusetts, and Minnesota. Most of the Syrian immigrants are Christians, and these constitute the more advanced portion of the whole body.

The activities and pursuits and achievements of the immigrants of the Arabian race in this country are as multifarious and notable as those of the best foreign elements flocking to America from the East. They support a large number of Arabian newspapers in the city of New York alone. The chief among these are *Meraat-ul-Gharb* (the *Daily Mirror*), *Al Hoda* (the *Eagle*), a newspaper devoting its columns "to serve the Arabic Nation and Syrian-American confluence"; *As Sayeh* (the *Traveler*) and *Al Bayan* (The *Proclamation*), published two

and three times a week. There are some monthlies printed in Arabian and dedicated to art, literature, and religion. The chief among these are *The Arts*, a progressive and comprehensive magazine published by Mr. N. Arida, and *The World*, a religious publication edited by Archdeacon Emmanuel Abo-Hatab. There are also Arabian newspapers in Boston, Fall River, and Minneapolis.

In spite of this imposing list of native publications, the Arabians have not been slow to avail themselves of the opportunities in education and business offered by America. While it is no easy task to make a just estimate of the degree of assimilation and Americanization of certain immigrant elements, there are signs in this respect which are valuable and instructive. "The Promised Land" of Mary Antin was such a sidelight on the tribulations and successes of the Russian-Jewish immigrant. A similar book was published by Dodd, Mead & Co. in 1911. Its title is "The Book of Khalid," and it is the story of a Syrian immigrant in the "golden" land. The author of the book, who has also written on many other subjects, is Ameen Rihani, born on the slopes of Mt. Lebanon and brought to this country when ten years of age. If his case should be taken as an example, then the Syrian-Arabian immigrant has certainly im-

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في الولايات المتحدة وتوايحها والمكسيك من سنة

٤ ريالات ومن نصف سنة ريالات ونصف

وفي كندا والمكسيك الأجنبية ٥ ريالات

بدل الاشتراك يدفع سنوياً

جميع المراسلات يجب أن تكون باسم

— عبد المسيح عبد حداد —

صاحب الجريدة ومحررها

صنوف الأمانة

٥٥ رودادي — نيويورك

عدد التليفون ٤٢٠٩ ركتور

New York, Thursday Sept. 21, 1916

تصدر يوم الاثنين والخميس من كل اسبوع

نيويورك الخميس في ٢١ ايلول سنة ١٩١٦

فرجت ادراجي اغالبه بالأسأونة وبالصبر

العاشق المخدوع

AN ARABIAN JOURNAL (SEMI-WEEKLY) OF NEW YORK

bibed the American ideals in no less a measure than any other newcomer.

M. Rihani was delegate to the Young Arabian Congress held in Paris in 1913, and he is closely identified with the revolutionary movement. This is true of many leading American Syrians and Arabians to whom Ottoman rule is distasteful and who would like to see an independent Arabia. The Moslem Arabs in this country sympathized with Turkey at the beginning of the war. But since the revolution broke out in Arabia their sentiments have been turned in favor of the Allies. There is, however, a small portion of Arabians in the United States which claims to be loyal to Turkey. Their chief exponent is S. Baddour, editor of *Al Bayan*. The continued successes of the Grand Sherif's revolution in Arabia are alienating steadily even those orthodox Moslems who cling to the Turkish sultan as the religious head in Islam.

These Moslems, scattered throughout the country, have not been able to organize into religious communities as the Christian Arabians have done. The environment has evidently a great deal to do with it. The



AMEEN F. RIHANI
(Immigrant from Syria,
author, and one of the lead-
ing young Arabians in this
country)

Christian Arabians maintain in Greater New York four churches, two of which are of the Greek, or Eastern order. Their priests are also trying to give religious instruction to the young generation growing up in this country. A number of the American-born Syrians have attended college, and some of these are able and well-known professional men. Others are leading business men, some of whom are very wealthy.

There is an industry in the United States which is exclusively in the hands of the Syrians, namely, the kimono industry. All grades of this feminine article are manufactured by the Syrians, and the number of factories especially engaged in this work in New York City and its vicinity is about thirty-five. Large numbers of Syrians are also engaged in the weaving industries, while the greater part of the Moslem immigrants are working in bakeries. Rugs and carpets and kindred articles are the things the Syrian peddler is usually selling, while tobacco and cigarettes form another considerable source of income to many Syrians. Exporting and importing to and from the Orient is also the occupation of many well-to-do Syrians.

AN AMERICAN ARAB'S TRIBUTE TO SYRIA

TRANSLATED FROM THE ARABIC OF AMIN MISHRIK
BY MARY CAROLINE HOLMES

[Miss Holmes, who has spent many years in Syria as a missionary teacher, and who is an excellent Arab scholar, is living in this country during the troubled war period. She finds the newspapers printed in the Arabic language in the United States instructive and interesting to an unusual degree. She regards as typical of the fine literary talent and the spirit of devotion to native land that characterizes many of the Syrians and Arabs in this country the following rhapsody which she has translated from the *Mirat al Ghurab* (Western Mirror). The poet is Mr. Amin Mishrik, whose passion for Syria is shared by a host of his fellow-countrymen of different creeds now making their living in the United States.—THE EDITOR.]

YESTER night, as though on a bed of consuming fire, I tossed and waited for the morn. Neither a cooling draught of water nor the night breeze through my casement brought relief. I seized my lute, but its strains increased my unrest. With the 'awakening of the morning my tired eyelids closed, and in a vision I was carried through the blue ether on wings.' After a space, I found my heart throbbing in a transport of delight, and lo, I beheld thee, my beloved, my beautiful one, sleeping 'neath trees of fir and cedar, the hem of thy robe rising and falling in waves of a sea of light, from which ascended odors more delicious than musk.

Thy breath like the smell of jasmine intoxicated me. I kneeled before thy sleeping loveliness in awe. To breathe even seemed a sacrilege. I gazed into thy face alight with the sunrise, and reading therein poetry, I worshiped. I said, "I will kiss thy smiling, mouth," when lo, thy smile turned into mourning. I looked, and beheld thy robe of green, soiled and torn, revealing thy ivory breasts beneath: thy sandals eaten of the stony ways and thy feet blood-stained from the wayside thorns.

Woe is me! Hast thou been brought to this, my beloved? Oh, thou daughter of kings, how dost thou consort with beggars? Of the seed of princes, and art fallen so low? One born to glory and honor turned into contempt and forgetfulness, and made to tread the thorns of the plains and rough mountain paths with tender, bleeding feet. Ah, woe, woe!

Tell me, beloved, what hath come to thee? Hath distance enamored thee, that thou wentest forth searching for something in the wilderness and waste places? Did longing constrain thee till thy mansions grew too straight for thee and thou wentest forth chanting, as in a delirium of new wine, that the winds bear it afar to me in my wanderings?

Thou didst well, oh, loveliest; thou didst well. I heard thy moans and wept. I under-

stood and was drunk with desire and sick with love. As distance is bitter, so reunion is sweet. In my heart is that which shall crumple the giant Lebanon and make narrow the goodly Baccā. All the tongues of men cannot express what riseth in my soul. My purpose burneth like live coals, and my longing maketh me drunken as doth the smell of jessamine. My grief is black as a night of thick clouds and desolate as the Desert of Silence.

Oh, beloved, my love for thee is deep as the ocean, wide as the bounds of heaven, mighty as the lightning, resplendent as the sun, pure as the dew, and lasting as eternity. I long for thee, oh, beautiful enchantress. I worship thee, oh, rock of my faith, oh, rest to my soul. If I meditate, 'tis of thee. If I dream, I dream of thee. Of thee I speak. In the morning I think of thy gleaming, white brow; at noon, in the burning heat, I remember the green cedars which shade thy beautiful head, and at even I see in the rays of setting sun thy wonderful countenance, yea, even the passing moonbeams on thy cheeks in the dark of night, while the attar of thy breath stealeth up with the dawn.

Will our days of love return? Yea, verily. Allah is not unmindful of the suffering of pure hearts. I shall soon return to defend thee with my right arm, my oppressed loved one. I shall come in vengeance upon the spoilers of the daughters of princes. Thy torn robe is ever before my eyes. Thy blood-stained feet are as thorns in my breast and thy sorrowful smile an arrow in my heart. I shall come to crush the sons of dogs who degraded the daughter of the Mighties. In my breast hate groweth. In my veins everlasting revenge boileth. I am a volcano of hate. I am a hell of retaliation into whose billows of flame thy enemies shall be cast.

We shall soon meet, beloved; we shall soon meet, oh, my desire, oh place of my dreams and pivot of my thoughts, oh, my hope, oh, my rest, oh, my happiness, oh, my life, oh, my beloved SYRIA!

AGRICULTURE AFTER THE WAR

By HUGH J. HUGHES

[Mr. Hughes, who has written for our readers these broad and statesmanlike observations upon agriculture at home and elsewhere as affected by the great war, has for some years been editor of *Farm, Stock and Home*, a well-known agricultural newspaper published at Minneapolis.—THE EDITOR.]

WHEN the Great War is over American agriculture, like every other line of business, will find itself in a new world, facing new problems that make a forecast of the situation both timely and valuable. These problems, briefly stated, are those of supply and demand and the displacement in supply and demand which has taken place during the progress of the war.

Agriculture is a worldwide business, made up of two great classes of farming—grain-growing and live-stock and dairy production. The former requires the less capital, the latter makes for a safer income. The former prevails in new lands, the latter is the backbone of well-developed agricultural communities. To a certain extent the two are interchangeable and any serious set-back in live-stock farming causes the live-stock farmer to go back to grain-growing as a business. This is explanatory of the situation which I shall describe.

EUROPE'S SHORTAGE OF MEN, HORSES, AND MEATS

The Great War has affected the agriculture of western Europe profoundly and in a destructive way. France, the Teuton empires, and Great Britain have all suffered enormous agricultural losses, both of men and of live stock. While it is true that the European peasant woman does a great deal of the work of the farm, it is no less true that the killing and maiming of hundreds of thousands of the best farmers in the world will seriously affect the productive powers of European farms for at least a decade to come. In like manner the destruction of horse flesh, which has gone to the extent of killing off the finest of Europe's horse population, has seriously impaired the farm power of the nations at war and has rendered changes in tillage methods imperative. The demands of the trenches for increased meat supplies have

not only used up the normal live-stock production, but have cut seriously into the breeding stock of the western nations, making a shortage of both meat and meat products a certainty for the immediate future.

A HIGHER STANDARD OF LIVING

Another phase of the situation which needs to be kept in mind is that this increased meat consumption just mentioned will have its after-war effect upon the demand for meat products. Just as after our own Civil War the soldiers took back home with them meat appetites that increased very materially the consumption of meat throughout the United States, so the European soldier is going to take back from the trenches a higher standard of living, and meat consumption throughout Europe will undoubtedly increase the live-stock demand. To this, of course, it may be replied that the impoverished condition of the people will limit their demands to the barest necessities. Yet that remains to be shown.

INCREASED GRAIN PRODUCTION

The possibilities are that, while the war will leave the countries as a whole deeply burdened by debt, individuals, and especially the agricultural population will demand a higher scale of living than ever before as an accompaniment to the higher wages that post-bellum conditions are likely to bring about. At the same time the shortage of both horse and man power will in all probability be reflected in a lessened production of the more intensely cultivated crops and an increased production in grain crops. Consequently from the standpoint of those nations which are now importing a large part of their food supplies, the indications are that there will be an increased import demand for live-stock accompanied by a decreased import demand for the cereal products of the farm.

The situation throughout the rest of the world outside of the United States leads to the same conclusion. Canada is straining every nerve to put additional acres under the plow; her progress in this direction being limited only by the shortage of man and team power. Her production of wheat can be increased almost indefinitely, and the cost of producing this wheat, owing to the cheap price of Canadian lands, is materially less than it is in the United States. A somewhat similar situation exists in the Argentine. There are in the South American republic vast areas of land on which wheat may still be profitably grown and the war has given a strong impulse to this wheat production.

Australia and India do not seriously concern us because their limitations in wheat production are quite definitely known and perhaps have been reached, but the awakening of Russia—perhaps the most remarkable event in current world history—is bound to be followed by agricultural consequences that will vitally affect the American farmer. Prior to the war one million Russian peasants were annually going to and settling on the great plains of southern Siberia; after the war is over this migration will be quickened and the first results observable to the world will be a tremendous increase in the wheat and rye production of the Russian empire. Russia, unlike the other leading European countries, has always been a heavy wheat exporter. With her cheap labor on her cheap lands she can easily produce all the wheat that western Europe may demand, provided the Russian peasant is given western machinery and can secure transportation for his crop.

THE AMERICAN FARMER SHOULD RESTRICT GRAIN ACREAGE

If this survey may be taken as correct, the American grain farmer, competing with the stress of circumstances in western Europe and with a heavily increased grain acreage throughout the cheap land areas of the world, is facing a difficult situation. His lands are going up in value and the margin of profit between the cost of production and the price received for the crop at the elevator is already dangerously small where not entirely wiped out. It is only by throwing in his own time and taking his profits largely in the rise of land values that he has been able during the past decade to show any real gains. With his over-seas market glutted, the best thing for him to do is largely to restrict his total acreage and thereby his

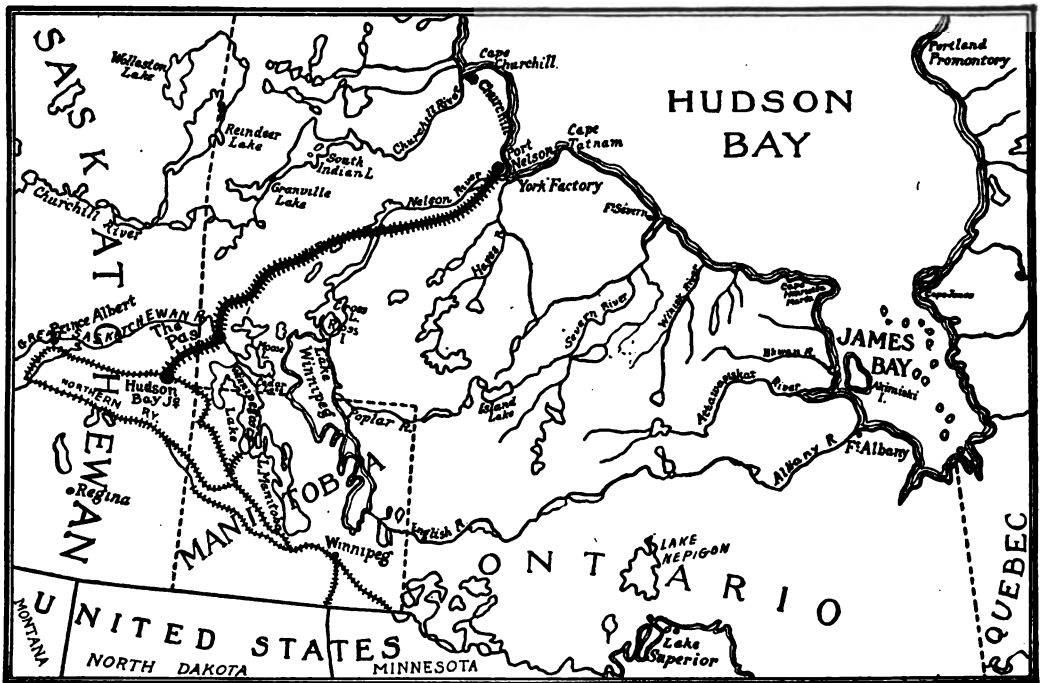
total production; otherwise he will find himself absolutely outclassed by foreign competition. That the grain grower has slowly recognized this situation is made evident by the fact that throughout the wheat belt wheat is but a small part of the total cash output of the farms—some 20 per cent., to give approximate figures.

GOOD PRICES FOR LIVE STOCK

On the other hand, the live-stock situation throughout the world points to an era of good prices for American-bred live stock. Not only does it happen that Europe is selling and eating itself short, but the live-stock production of the agricultural countries outside of Europe is not keeping pace with the growth of these countries. Western Canada is eagerly buying foundation stock with which to build up herds for the future. The same thing is true of the other lands mentioned, and in the United States, south of Mason and Dixon's line, the great diversified farming movement of the past half-decade is insistently calling for all the good breeding stock that can be brought in.

As a consequence of this world shortage and demand the live-stock business of the United States is in a thriving condition, with the outlook for the future most excellent. Between the demands for herd-building purposes and the going consumption demands of the local and export trade, the live-stock farmer is facing a situation in which the only danger is that high prices may persuade him to sacrifice his breeding stock. When one considers that, broadly speaking, the agriculture of the United States is on a live-stock rather than a grain-growing basis, and that the dairies, creameries, cheese factories, and packing plants rather than the cash grain crops are representative of the typical American farm of to-day, he is led to believe that the situation from the standpoint of the American farmer is an exceedingly hopeful one and that this great industry with its annual business overturn of nearly ten billion dollars is due to an era of expansion that will be reflected in the better equipment for the farms, the erection of better farm homes, the development of still better live stock, the building of roads and schools, and all that goes to make country life wholesome.

In this connection the reader should not forget that while the farmer is ordinarily thought of as a producer he represents 40 per cent. of the population of the country and quite as great a relative buying or consuming power.



THE HUDSON BAY RAILROAD—TO BE COMPLETED TO PORT NELSON EARLY NEXT YEAR

PROGRESS OF THE HUDSON BAY RAILROAD

BY P. T. McGRATH

THE advocates of Canada's latest vital commercial project, the Hudson Bay Railroad, find strong arguments for its construction in the railroad which the United States is building in Alaska and in the efforts which Russia has made in the way of opening up new outlets through her northern territory since the present war began. The utility of her White Sea route has been greatly increased and the period of sea-borne intercourse of Archangel much lengthened, through the work of Canadian and Newfoundland ice-breakers. A new railway from Petrograd to Kola Bay in virtually ice-free waters beyond the farthest Norwegian territory is now nearing completion and from sections of the line already finished, as well as from Archangel, troops are being embarked on transports for conveyance to Brest to fight alongside the Allies on the Western front. That the Kara Sea route, an outlet for the products of Siberia, is also being developed is asserted in the London *Times*' "Book of Russia," the latest volume published on that country, which sets out a series of

arguments for a railway to that sea source singularly applicable to the Hudson Bay project also—namely, that the country is becoming rapidly swollen with population, that these people produce wheat mainly but are unable to market it easily because of remoteness from tide-waters, that to send it by rail to the nearest available seaport at present costs more than the wheat is worth, that the region is also rich in mineral, timber and fishery wealth which cannot be developed, and that until a railway is constructed the proper colonization and administration of the region are impossible.

Next year Canada expects to have her new channel of commercial communication working by way of Hudson Bay. The railroad, the construction of which she began in 1912, should be completed early in 1917 and her authorities hope that much of the grain harvested on the Western prairies in that summer will be conveyed to Europe by means of this railroad and of steamers which will ply on Hudson Bay. The railroad itself, which stretches from The Pas, on the

Great Saskatchewan River, where it connects with the Canadian-Northern Railroad system, to Port Nelson, on the shore of Hudson Bay, has a mileage of 425, and may be described as four-fifths completed. Track-laying was stopped last winter for the building of an immense bridge over a gorge of the Nelson River, but was forwarded during the past summer through country which requires only minor bridges, and it is hoped to have the rails themselves laid right to the terminal before the snow comes, even if the ballasting and other work has to remain over until next season.

SAVING A THOUSAND MILES IN WHEAT SHIPMENTS

So much for the railroad itself, the cost of which, completed and ready for traffic, is estimated at \$16,000,000. The feasibility of construction was never questioned, though the wisdom of laying such a line through such a country has been sometimes doubted. The most serious of the objections advanced against it are, first, that owing to its northern location, the territory will never be settled on a scale that will make it profitable; second, that the climatic conditions militate against this region being used as a farming area; and, third, that its mineral wealth, if it possesses any, is not sufficiently determined to justify such an undertaking. On the other hand, the supporters of the project claim that the same arguments were advanced fifty years ago regarding the prairie section of Canada, which is now the home of multitudes, and which will likely be settled on a vastly larger scale after the close of the war; that in time the spread of population will bring all of these territories under cultivation; and further, that one of the chief reasons for the construction of the railroad is that it will afford a means of shipping the grain crop to market every year under conditions which will shorten the journey by 1,000 miles. That is to say, Port Nelson is virtually no farther from Liverpool than is Montreal; that a car of wheat leaving Regina and destined for Europe can be on the dock at Port Nelson by the time it would reach Fort William, Ontario, at the head of the Great Lakes, by the existing Canadian railroad systems, and that the saving will be the thousand miles between Fort William by railroad, or the longer distance by the lakes and Montreal, which is on an equality with Port Nelson as regards Liverpool.

From the northern areas of the Western Provinces, the mileage is, of course, greater,

and as the districts are but sparsely settled at present and vast developments may be expected from them, the advantages of this railroad will be increased thereby, while the benefits enjoyed by the farmers of Alberta and Saskatchewan will also be available to their neighbors south of the American boundary. Not the least of the arguments in favor of the Hudson Bay Railroad is the fact that, if Canada's production of grain in the West increases henceforth as it has of recent years, the existing railroad systems will be inadequate to its transport. For instance, a prominent Canadian railroad manager asserted recently that it would take the Canadian railroads at least 200 days to move last year's crop, and this must create a gradually increasing difficulty for the transport systems, while a further advantage offering through the Hudson Bay Railroad is that the competition it will afford will tend to lessen the haulage rates for all the products of the Canadian farms, and thus give the farmer the means of gaining a greater return for the products of his industry.

Still another argument is that by such a channel most, if not all, the requirements of Western Canada from European countries can be brought to its doors much more cheaply and expeditiously than they can be obtained through the present avenues by steamer to the Atlantic seaboard of Canada, and thence by rail to the West, and it is important to remember in considering this railroad project, that this is one of the strong arguments on which its success is predicted.

CLIMATIC CONDITIONS

With respect to the railroad itself, therefore, objections can be fairly met. Heretofore, in many centers, railroads have been pushed through regions no more promising in the opinion of those who lived at the time the rails were laid, and yet population has followed the railroad and has built up in its wake thriving communities. The real difficulty respecting this Hudson Bay project is in the waterways—whether these are available for a sufficient period of the year to make the undertaking a profitable one. In considering this matter it is well to remember that people do not connect Berlin, Copenhagen, Moscow, or even Stockholm, with Arctic conditions. Yet Berlin is only half a degree south of Edmonton, Alberta; York Factory, on Hudson Bay, practically identical with Port Nelson, is south of Riga on the Baltic; and Fort Churchill is almost on the same parallel as Stockholm.

ALASKAN RAILROAD HARDER TO BUILD

A fact which present-day observers contend is a strong argument in favor of the Hudson Bay Railroad is that the United States is teaching Canada a wholesome lesson by building a railway in Alaska, 400 miles farther north than the Hudson Bay Railway, and through a more rocky and inhospitable country, and it is suggested that if Canada were part of the American commonwealth the people of Boston, New York, Philadelphia and Washington would have been breakfasting on Hudson Bay fish for the past quarter-century. Hudson Bay is well south of the Arctic circle. It drains a larger territory than the Baltic, and the Baltic freezes over every winter, but Hudson Bay does not, for while it freezes around its shores for ten or fifteen miles, the rest of the vast watery expanse is always open. Petrograd is 200 miles north of Fort Churchill, and Copenhagen is as far north of Port Nelson, and if Canada grows after the war as many expect, the areas accessible from this bay will have within the next century a population of 20,000,000 souls.

NAVIGATION SEASON ON HUDSON BAY

None the less there are vigorous and persistent critics of the route on various grounds, notably on the ground that the season is so short that the chief object for which the road is designed, namely, to get out the season's grain crop before navigation closes, is hopeless of accomplishment. Enthusiastic advocates of the route claim that it is navigable for six months. More impartial observers set the period at about four months. During the past four seasons, ships of the Newfoundland sealing fleet have been carrying to Port Nelson all the material required for the construction of the terminal system there, consisting of breakwaters, docks, piers, warehouses, etc., and the facts respecting these ships, which, it must be remembered, are specially designed to cope with ice, are as follows: In the summer of 1912 the first boat reached Port Nelson on July 27, an unusually early date; in 1913 on August 7; in 1914 on August 14; in 1915 on August 1. The last boat to leave Port Nelson in 1913 sailed on October 16, and barely succeeded in getting through the Strait before the icepack closed it. The last departure in 1914 was on October 14, when conditions were good for at least a week longer. In 1915 the last date ship sailed on October 12, and made a safe passage.

From these dates it will be observed that

the maximum season for navigation in these waters is a little over three months. The minimum season is only two months, and it probably would be reasonable to estimate that shipping companies would base their calculations on a season of two and a half months' duration, since it would not be profitable to have ordinary grain freighters attempting to negotiate waters thickly strewn with ice masses. It is important, moreover, to remember that the length of the navigation season is not governed by the climatic conditions around Port Nelson and Fort Churchill, some eighty miles farther north, but by the flow of ice coming down from the Arctic Circle and blockading Hudson Strait so as to retard the passage of ships coming through that waterway. Again, it is stated that marine insurance for these waters runs from 20 to 25 per cent., which would be prohibitive for any company whose ships were not chartered by the Government at a high rental, as those employed for the service there up to the present time are.

The contingency that ordinary commercial concerns may not be disposed to undertake the navigation of this route is already being considered by the Canadian authorities, and it is advocated in some quarters that the Dominion Government should construct, own and operate its own system of steamers in conjunction with the railroad, and, if necessary, meet the cost of insurance itself. The reason for this is that in all likelihood, if the service is to be satisfactory, ships of special construction will have to be provided, since the ordinary tramp freighter of commerce, which is lightly built and entirely unsuited for Arctic work, cannot be safely employed in such a trade, nor would it pay shipowners to undertake the cost of constructing vessels of the design required for this route when they could only be employed there for two or three months of each year. Hence, it is thought that vessels suitable for the route will not soon, nor in sufficient numbers, be provided by private enterprise, and that the government will have to undertake this work on its own account, with the further drawback that if the grain of a given season is to be got out that year before navigation closes, an exceptionally large number of vessels will be required, because not more than one, or at most two trips, in the short time intervening between the harvesting of the crop and the closing of navigation will be possible for such vessels.

A curious circumstance with regard to the seafaring phase is that the reports of the

Canadian Department of Railways and Canals on the one side and those of the Marine and Fisheries Department on the other side are directly at variance on the much disputed question of the navigability of Hudson Strait. For instance, Mr. Anderson, marine officer engaged in the survey of Hudson Bay, reports many serious difficulties in regard to making Hudson Strait a feasible commercial waterway. He advocates, indeed, the use of hydroplanes operated in connection with the wireless stations to be erected along the route, as being likely to be of more use in informing shipmasters as to ice conditions and where open leads of water may be found than sea-going tugs previously suggested.

He does not take an optimistic view of the navigability of Hudson Strait under any conditions. Describing his investigations during last year, he observes that navigation is sometimes greatly impeded by ice until late in August for vessels entering the Strait from the east, and from early in October for those entering from the west, because ice from the far north begins to appear at the west entrance about the latter date, greatly interfering with the vessels.

On the other hand, the Department of Railways and Canals, which for four years had been shipping supplies and equipment to Port Nelson via Hudson Strait, sets out that this work has been carried on for four months each year with little loss and very little delay. The vessels employed in the transport of materials and supplies were two steamers purchased by the Canadian Government—the *Sheba* and the *Durley Chine*, and also the chartered Newfoundland sealers *Adventure*, *Bellaventure*, *Bonaventure*. Each of these had some seasons made three voyages between Halifax and Port Nelson. The *Durley Chine* and the *Sheba* had made two voyages each, and the quantity of cargo landed last year totaled 10,000 tons, not including timber. The ships were loaded to their fullest extent and nothing was left behind at Halifax, Sydney, or Montreal, while everything taken aboard was safely landed at Nelson, and nothing was lost except a small portion of hard pine from the fore deck of the *Adventure* during bad weather, which it was observed might happen to any ship on any route. The Marine Superintendent, Captain Webb, says that the temporary lights used in 1915 proved a great help to navigation, but advises a lightship in line with Nelson Channel to replace that on a point near these al-

ready unless the latter can be made sufficiently powerful to cover a greater radius. He remarks that when wireless stations are established navigation will be greatly facilitated, and that the employment of an ice-breaker is also important to safe navigation, while in conclusion he notes a steady improvement in results, and says he has every reason to regard the progress made as satisfactory.

ACCESSORIES OF A MODERN PORT

This season (1916) most of the supplies required for the enterprise are being conveyed to the shores of Hudson Bay over the railroad itself and will be got as near as possible to the terminal, if not absolutely there, by the end of this year, but the work at Port Nelson may be somewhat longer delayed because of dredging necessary at the entrance of the harbor. Here the estuary is from half a mile to fifteen miles wide, nineteen or twenty feet deep at low water, with a six-foot rise at spring tide, while the enterprise requires the cutting out of a channel through shoals, and the construction of large terminal facilities, and at its outlet now an area of mud flats exists, extending for many miles off the port, sometimes indeed almost beyond the horizon. The unusual tides keep the track of the river mouth permanently free from ice and so affect other areas that the ice is never more than ten to twelve inches thick. The rest of the area is gripped in winter by an icepack which may be many feet thick and which has formed one of the most serious difficulties in the way of construction. A huge dredge, the finest in the world, was constructed in Toronto some three years ago and towed to the Bay, where it has done splendid service since. A breakwater has been formed at a point where it will do much to make navigation safe. All the wharves, piers, and other essentials to a modern shipping port are being created, and when the railroad is finished and it becomes possible expeditiously to transport materials to tidewater, this phase of the undertaking will be expedited considerably.

Hudson Bay itself is admittedly an open sea in regard to the greater part of its area, but Hudson Strait is blocked for several months of each year by the ice that flows down from the Arctic waters and is caught therein. During the summer months it is certainly navigable, but it all times the transit is attended with danger because of the uncharted currents, the presence of scattered ice pieces and the unreliability of the compass, a condition not to be overlooked.

TAPPING THE RESOURCES OF RUSSIA¹

BY PAUL P. FOSTER

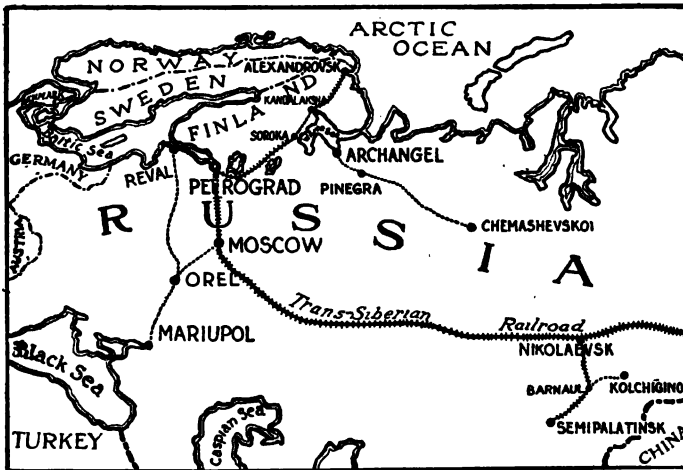
RUSSIA'S most important transportation undertaking since the construction of the Trans-Siberian Railway is the new road from Petrograd due north to an ice-free port on the Arctic Ocean. No country in the world with the possibilities that Russia possesses is so unfortunately situated with regard to access to the sea. Archangel and the other northern ports are closed with ice during a great part of the year, and this is true

laksha had been completed. This is the most difficult section, for it passes through the vast forests and treacherous swamps that border the White Sea. There is every reason to believe, however, that the last rails will be laid in December, when the whole road should be in working order.

Early in the present summer a most important conference took place in Petrograd at which the Russian Ministers of Railway and Means of Communication, of Commerce and Industry, of Finance, and of War approved plans that call for the construction of 25,000 miles of new railway and a system of ship canals unequaled anywhere in the world, all to be completed within the next five years. The new lines of railway and canal will link together virtually all the localities that possess rich natural resources in minerals, grain, and timber, and will connect with trunk lines handling traffic to and from Siberia, Central Asia, and the White Sea.

One of the most important projects, which is to receive immediate attention, is an 1100-mile railway from the port of Reval, on the Baltic Sea, to Orel and the coal, iron, and steel districts of the south. Another line is to run from Moscow to Marioupol, a fast-growing port on the Sea of Azov. This railway will be considerably shorter than the line from Moscow to Odessa. It will also traverse the basin of the River Donetz and thus facilitate the shipment of vast quantities of oil by water from the Sea of Azov to all parts of Russia, as well as to foreign ports.

In Siberia a new line is to connect the Trans-Siberian Railway with the upper waters of the Lena River, opening up to economic development regions abounding in all kinds of minerals and timber. The Commission on New Railways has also approved



NEW AND PROJECTED RAILROADS IN NORTHERN RUSSIA

also of the Baltic outlets. The war closed the Dardanelles to Russia, and Vladivostok, 6600 miles from the capital, has hitherto been the only year-round ice-free harbor of the great Empire. But at Novo Alexandrovsk, on the Kola Peninsula of Lapland and well within the Arctic Circle, the influence of the Gulf Stream keeps the mouth of the bay free from ice the year round. The Russian Government has therefore rushed the construction of a railway which will bring her sorely needed supplies without interruption during the winter months from this isolated port to the capital.

At last accounts all but the brief stretch of road that lies between Soroka and Kanda-

¹ See article, "New Ports and Railways of Russia," REVIEW OF REVIEWS, June, 1916.

the construction of a 200-mile railway from Barnaul to Kolchugino, which will pass through the coalfields of Kuznetsk, one of the richest in the world. This road will connect at Barnaul with the recently opened Altai Railway, a 500-mile line connecting Nikolaevsk, on the Trans-Siberian Railway, with Semipalatinsk, in the Steppes provinces, a region of exceptional mineral wealth.

Still another line which is to be built immediately is the Ob-Ural-Bielomorsky Railway. Starting from Archangel, on the White Sea, the line will run to Pinega and traverse the Ukhtinsky district and the Urals to a port on the River Ob near Chemashevsky. This thousand-mile railway will pass through the dense forests of the basins of the Mezen, Petchora, and Ob rivers, promote the export trade in timber, and will also provide a cheaper outlet for the vast grain supplies of Western Siberia.

These vast projects will cost hundreds of millions of dollars. Russia needs immediately

and will need for many years to come immense quantities of railroad supplies and equipment of every sort, nearly all of which is to be supplied by American industry. The Russian Government intends to profit by the example of American railway methods of construction and management and has sent hundreds of her engineers and practical railway men to this country to study the construction, operation, and maintenance of our railway systems. It is estimated that the public and private transportation projects already authorized will require machinery and other equipment valued at \$300,000,000 in the first year alone.

Fortunately the United States is in a position to finance many of these undertakings and to furnish the machinery and equipment which all of them will need. Our financiers and manufacturers are studying the situation and they are certain to take a leading part in the coming development of Russia's vast and latent resources.

PROGRESS OF THE ALASKAN GOVERNMENT RAILWAY

BY HERBERT T. WADE

THE Alaskan Government railway system, which the President of the United States was authorized to build by special act of Congress, involves a mileage for the main line from Seward to Fairbanks of 466 miles, with a branch to the Matanuska coal fields thirty-eight miles in length, or a total of 504 miles. At the end of the construction season of 1916, 132 miles of line were available for operation of trains and eighty-five miles represented new construction. The cost of construction for the system was estimated by the Alaskan Engineering Commission at \$25,642,718, exclusive of rolling stock, and up to October 1, 1916, appropriations by Congress had amounted to \$11,000,000.

It will be recalled¹ that the President was authorized to locate, construct, and operate railways in the Territory of Alaska so as to connect one or more of the Pacific Ocean harbors with the navigable waters and mineral fields of the interior. Accordingly sur-

veys were made under the direction of the Alaskan Engineering Commission, consisting of William C. Edes, chairman; Frederick Mears, and Thomas Riggs, Jr., and on April 10, 1915, President Wilson issued an executive order designating the route selected by the Commission, which began at Seward, on the westerly shore of Resurrection Bay, and proceeded in a general northerly direction by way of Kenai Lake, Kern Creek, the Susitna and Chulitna rivers to Broad Pass, and thence through the Nenana River basin to the Tanana River, with the northern terminal at Fairbanks. Two miles above the crossing of the Matanuska River a branch line thirty-eight miles in length was to be built to the Matanuska coal fields, whose output was particularly needed for the economic and mining development of Alaska. Furthermore, as an essential part of the new system the Alaskan Northern Railway, extending from Seward to Kern River on Turnagain Arm of Cook Inlet, was purchased at a cost of \$1,150,000.

In 1915 the Commission began actual

¹ See AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS, May, 1915, page 573, "Alaska's Government Railroad."

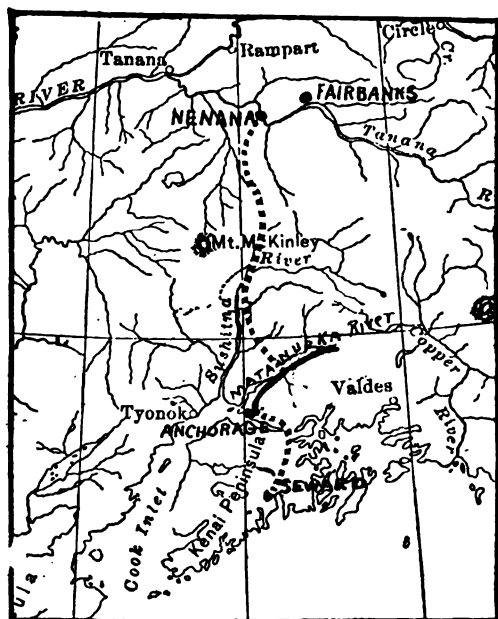


FIG. 1. GOVERNMENT RAILWAY SYSTEM IN ALASKA
(Track-laying completed on the heavily shaded portion)

new construction and commenced the rehabilitation of the Alaskan Northern Railway. The point known as Anchorage on the Knik Arm of Cook Inlet, 120 miles north from Seward and five miles west of the main trunk route as located, was selected as the construction base for new operations as it was the head of navigation for ocean-going steamers. Here a complete equipment for both harbor and terminal development, as well as for railway construction, was assembled, and active work was put under way in April. Wherever it was possible to classify the work of construction as for clearing or grading the right of way it was contracted for at unit prices, and to so-called "station men" or workmen associating themselves in groups as partners various pieces were allotted. In this organization each man signed the contract, thus becoming interested in it as a co-partner or small contractor, and receiving a separate check for his share, while the compensation, of course, depended upon the amount of work done. Consequently the large contractor was eliminated and the individual workmen received increased returns.

By January 1, 1916, the right of way had been cleared and grubbed for forty miles north of Anchorage, and grading had been completed for thirty-five miles. Track had been laid to Eagle River, a distance of $13\frac{1}{4}$ miles, and the work was so organized

that track laying could be carried on at a rate of about one-half mile a day.

Early in the year, after about thirty-five miles of line had been built from Anchorage, there occurred a strike. A period of inactivity ensued, terminated with a compromise made by a Board of Arbitration, which increased the pay of both common and skilled laborers. With labor troubles settled the branch line to the coal fields from Matanuska Junction, 36.61 miles from Anchorage on the main line, was pushed forward, and track was laid past Moose Creek, where the first coal mine of this field was located. This mine, privately worked, soon was able to supply continuously a limited amount of coal for use in construction work at Anchorage.

During the summer the main line north of Matanuska Junction was cleared and graded for two miles further, and, as many stream crossings and marshy land were encountered, it was found that the work could be carried on more vigorously after the ground was frozen. Other construction bases of work on the main line were established, notably at Talkeetna, about 100 miles north of Anchorage, at the junction of the Talkeetna, Susitna, and Chulitna rivers, where much clearing and grading of the line was carried on and a sawmill was established. This point was accessible by shallow-draft boats on the Susitna River.

To meet the Alaska Northern Railway, construction work was prosecuted vigorously to the south of Anchorage and track was laid for nine miles, beyond which the right of way had been cleared for five miles additional to Potter Creek, on Turnagain Arm. From here a sled road is to be kept open during the winter, so that the overland distance between Seward and Anchorage will be reduced to thirty miles.

On the Fairbanks Division, where the new railway system connects with the Nenana River, a tributary of the Yukon, much clearing was done during the summer and seventeen miles of wagon road built, in addition to a dock, workshops, and other buildings. This work was started in order to have the output of the Nenana coal fields, 110 miles south of Fairbanks, made available for dredging and other mining operations in the gold-bearing creeks in the vicinity of Fairbanks, where the supply of wood for fuel is rapidly becoming exhausted. The Commission expects to reach the Nenana coal fields with railway some time in the fall of 1917.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

THE WILSON ADMINISTRATION REVIEWED

AMONG the magazine articles that have appeared in the course of the campaign now drawing to a close, only a few are of more than transitory interest. The survey of President Wilson's administration of foreign affairs, contributed by Dr. David Jayne Hill to the *North American Review*, is of this small number. No American of to-day is better entitled by his record and his knowledge of the subject to comment on our foreign relations than Dr. Hill. From 1898 to 1903 he was Assistant Secretary of State. From 1903 to 1907 he served as United States Minister to Switzerland and to the Netherlands, and from 1908 to 1911 he was Ambassador to Germany. He was appointed member of the Permanent Administrative Council of The Hague Tribunal, and was a delegate to the Second Peace Conference at The Hague.

Dr. Hill's first article, which appeared in the September *North American*, deals almost exclusively with President Wilson's Mexican policy, and in the October number he continues his review of our Mexican relations. Dr. Hill is not of those who insist that it was necessary to recognize Huerta, even as late as the spring of 1914, but he contends that among the contestants for the Presidency in Mexico, Huerta alone gave any promise of subduing anarchy. His success in any event would have been prevented by President Wilson's sympathy with the insurgents and the removal of the embargo on arms and munitions. So Dr. Hill concludes that "it was not the mere non-recognition of Huerta that most embarrassed his efforts to pacify the country; but the intrusive, censorious, and unprecedented attempt to mix up the American Government with Mexican affairs—an attempt which, without producing the least benefit to anyone, eventually exasperated Huerta, alienated all Latin-Americans, and imperiled all American interests in Mexico, which were left without a means of defense or of reparation in that republic."

Taking up the plea made by certain defenders of the Administration, that President Wilson's whole object in Mexico was to overthrow the landed oligarchy and to restore self-government to the Mexican people, Dr. Hill asks:

Was it for this, then, that the President sent the army and navy of the United States to Mexico; not to protect American life and property, but to aid in working out a social revolution, and in effect to reform the Mexican Constitution? But where did he obtain the right to do this?

The salute to the flag, for which our armed forces were supposed to be sent to Mexico, was never given; and, after the occupation of Vera Cruz, appears never even to have been demanded. Failure to obtain it, however—it is now alleged—was no humiliation; for it was only a pretext to justify the President's action in the eyes of the American people. The real purpose was, by force or intimidation, to overthrow Huerta; and thus enable the insurgents to set up such a form of government as the President of the United States approved.

Looking backward over the whole period since March 4, 1913, Dr. Hill finds it difficult to believe that

it is the same President who, in April, 1913, demanded that there be an "immediate cessation of fighting throughout Mexico"; who, in October, 1913, said to the faithful followers of William Penn at Swarthmore: "Nowhere can any government endure which is stained by blood"; who, in December, 1913, said to Congress: "There can be no certain prospect of peace in America until General Huerta has surrendered his usurped authority in Mexico"; who, in February, 1914, removed the embargo, thus permitting new armies to equip themselves for continuing war; who, in April, 1914, demanded the privilege of driving Huerta from power with the armed forces of the United States, invaded Mexico, and made war on its inhabitants; and who, in January, 1915, having prolonged anarchy in Mexico by the aid offered now to one and now to another of the insurgents, could say in the extraordinary speech delivered at Indianapolis: "I got very tired staying in Washington and saying sweet things. I wanted to come out and get in contact with you once more and say what I really thought"; and then, speaking of the situation in Mexico: "It is none of my business, and it is none of yours, how

long they take in determining it. . . . Have not European nations taken as long as they wanted and spilt as much blood as they pleased in settling their affairs, and shall we deny that to Mexico because she is weak?"

To reach that conclusion by the path actually pursued has cost the American people two hundred million dollars for successive interventions, besides many human lives; and the end is not yet reached. Our troops for the second time are on duty in Mexico.

Passing to the consideration of our European relations, Dr. Hill finds that the impression made upon Europe by the actions of the Administration in relation to Mexico was distinctly unfavorable to the United States. "It was the jest of European diplomatists that this Government had neither the army nor the courage to try conclusions with Huerta, but merely scolded and passively watched the destruction of American and foreign life and property in Mexico."

When the great war broke out in August, 1914, we made no protest against the violation of Belgium's neutrality, nor was it expected at that time in Europe that we would make such a protest, yet Dr. Hill maintains that it is precisely this spirit of passive acquiescence in the breaking of treaty engagements that is responsible for many of the misfortunes that have befallen us since the war began. It was the settled conviction, he says, in the chancellories of Europe at the beginning of the war, that, no matter what the belligerents did, the Administration at Washington would do absolutely nothing. On the other hand,

A prompt and earnest manifesto against the disregard of treaty obligations would have been an act not only of unquestioned legality and propriety, for which the belligerents had themselves furnished precedents, but the performance of a duty to all neutral nations. It would have given us at once the moral leadership of the world, and made the United States the friend and the rallying center of all the neutral countries. It would have done more: it would have given us the

balance of power during the war in international affairs; and, even in the fearful turmoil of conflict, the belligerents would have sought our approval in choosing their methods of procedure. Our attitude of total self-effacement, except in pressing our chance for profit by the misfortune of others, has left us without a friend. With many fervid professions regarding "humanity" in the abstract, the Administration has stood actively and effectively for nothing whatever in the concrete, not even for the lives of our citizens.

On the subject of Germany's submarine warfare, Dr. Hill has this to say (and as the opinion of a former American Ambassador to the Kaiser's court, the utterance is worthy of serious attention):

The writer of this article firmly believes that, if a telegram had been sent to the German Emperor personally, on February 10, 1915, after a frank discussion of the subject with the German Ambassador, instead of the "strict accountability" note, making direct appeal to the Emperor's good sense and friendly disposition toward the United States, not a single ship known or believed to carry American passengers would ever have been sunk without warning. Such an appeal would have been an evidence of real friendship. It would, at least, have absolved the Administration at Washington from a grave responsibility; and it would have placed the relations with the German Empire upon an entirely different footing from that which the wavering attitude at Washington produced.

Commenting on our declaration to Germany, in April of the present year, that unless her methods of submarine warfare should be immediately abandoned the United States would sever diplomatic relations with the German Empire, Dr. Hill says that this step, taken in response to an irresistible tide of public sentiment, proved in the result that if it had been taken in February, 1915, instead of April, 1916, 144 American lives might have been saved, for Germany paid deference, "though reluctant and even conditional," to this first and only concrete declaration from the Government at Washington.

A DEFENSE OF THE PRESIDENT'S MEXICAN POLICY

UPHOLDERS of the Administration's conduct in Mexico, which has been savagely attacked by ex-Presidents Roosevelt and Taft, and by publicists like Dr. Hill, have found comfort in the article on "The Achievements of the Democratic Party," contributed to the *Atlantic Monthly* for October, by Dr. Charles W. Eliot, president emeritus of Harvard.

So far from apologizing for President Wilson's acts in Mexico, Dr. Eliot glories in what he terms the "thorough committal" of the country, through those acts, to two policies, "which nearly concern its righteousness and its dignity." One of these policies is—no war with Mexico. The other is—"no intervention by force of arms to protect on foreign soil American commercial and

manufacturing adventurers, who of their own free will have invested their money or risked their lives in foreign parts under alien jurisdictions."

Dr. Eliot admits that the Washington Administration has not been altogether consistent in pursuing the policy of non-intervention, and he admits also that it has not yet found out how to compose the internal troubles of Mexico without armed intervention, but he rejoices that "America has now turned its back on the familiar policy of Rome and Great Britain, of protecting or avenging their wandering citizens by force

of arms, and has set up a quite different policy of her own."

Dr. Eliot also finds in the coöperation of the A-B-C powers with the United States the promise of valuable Pan-American action in the future. In his opinion neither of the two preceding Republican administrations, which made sincere attempts to improve the political and commercial relations between the United States and South American countries, had anything like the success that has attended President Wilson's efforts. This success "foretells the moral unity of all the American republics."

"WHAT WOULD YOU HAVE DONE?"

A GREAT part of this campaign, in and out of the magazines, has consisted in the reiteration of this direct question: "What would you have done?" This is the rejoinder always made to every specific challenge of the Administration's record. For example, Secretary Franklin K. Lane, writing in the *New York Times* for October 15, puts the question in this form:

If you say, "Discharge Woodrow Wilson from his job and put me in his place," am I not entitled to say to you: "What would you have done in his stead? Prove to me that you could have done better. What is your policy? What knowledge had you of the situation that confronted the country when he had to act? What policy that you have invented would give the country greater prestige abroad and more happiness at home than that which he followed when the emergency came?"

But the Republicans do not even now tell us what they would have done if they had been in charge of the Government for the four hardest years of perplexing strain that any President has had for fifty years.

Maybe they would have kept us out of war—but I doubt it. Maybe they would have passed the Child Labor act or the Rural Credits bill—but I doubt it. Maybe they would have saved American lives everywhere by some magic of their own—but I doubt it.

Can they do nothing but "knock," these wealthy and educated leaders of our aristocracy?

Of course, they are not afraid to say what they would have done!

Is it fear that keeps them from saying what they would have done? These gentlemen claim to possess all the national spirit that there is, all the fight and punch that makes this nation. Do they fear by being frank that they will lose the German-American vote, the pro-Ally vote, the farmers' vote, the bankers' vote, the working-men's vote, or even the whole-souled, fair-play, square-deal American vote?

Moreover, those Republicans who are now



THE NIGHTMARE
From the *World* (New York)

attacking President Wilson for what he did or failed to do at various junctures in our recent history were silent and without initiative, according to Secretary Lane, at the time when the things complained of were in the doing. Although as a minority party they could have done nothing effective, Secretary Lane feels that they might at least have made known their own solutions of the various problems, as they arose.

In the *Yale Review* for October, Mr. Norman Hapgood puts twelve questions to which he desires answers from Mr. Hughes:

1. Would Mr. Hughes intervene in Mexico?
2. If so, would he recognize the titles granted to the great concessionaires under Diaz, or the new titles to smaller holders in the same land

granted by Carranza? An answer to this last question particularly would help thousands to understand what he really means, as they cannot now.

3. Would he have broken off relations with Germany at once when the *Lusitania* went down?

4. Would he have fought on account of the invasion of Belgium?

5. Would he have put an embargo on arms?

6. Does he favor ship subsidies?

7. Does he wish to change the Federal Reserve Act and go back to our former financial system? Does he prefer the Aldrich plan?

8. Is the Rural Credit Act a good measure, and if not, exactly what would he prefer?

9. Would he like to go back to the Payne-

Aldrich tariff? What schedules in the Underwood tariff would he raise?

10. Would he urge the repeal of the Seaman's Act, and, if so, what steps would he take to give to American seamen decent standards of living?

11. Would he urge the repeal of the labor clauses of the Clayton Act?

12. Does he think the appointment of Louis D. Brandeis to the Supreme Court to be a good or a bad appointment? This last question he cannot, for obvious reasons, answer directly, but he can find some way of explicitly stating his position so that we can understand whether the President's daring stand for progress is altogether abhorrent to him.

EX-SENATOR EDMUNDS REPLIES TO THE HON. RICHARD OLNEY

AFTER the publication in the New York *World* of a letter from the Hon. Richard Olney, who was Attorney-General and Secretary of State in the second Cleveland administration, and who strongly indorses the work of President Wilson, the *World* received from ex-Senator George F. Edmunds a reply to Mr. Olney. Mr. Edmunds was in the United States Senate from Vermont for twenty-five years, retiring in 1891. He has always been recognized as one of the most eminent Republican statesmen of his generation. In his letter to the *World* Mr. Edmunds refers to certain events that occurred in Mr. Cleveland's administration and in which Mr. Olney was himself deeply concerned. He praises especially the attitude maintained by President Cleveland (ably sustained by Mr. Olney) in the Venezuela boundary case. Referring to President Cleveland's famous message on this subject, Mr. Edmunds says:

The substance is vivid in my memory, for, although Mr. Cleveland's political opponent, he did me the great honor of conferring with me upon the subject, when I had the pleasure of telling him that in my belief the political party of which I was a member would stand nearly solid in support of the position which he assumed.

It was not with him a matter of the danger of warfare, but a mat-

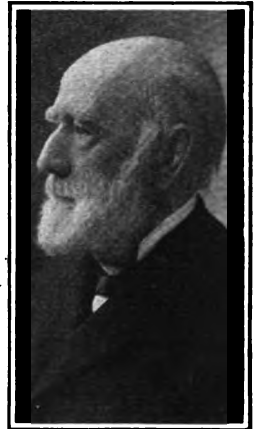
ter of national honor and duty to speak plainly, no matter what might be the risks of military collision. In the face of this position the imminence of war faded and vanished as sometimes does a storm cloud in our north country disappear before a steady west wind.

These historic facts compel a contrast between the administration of which Mr. Olney was a very eminent member and the conduct of the present administration, which has chiefly distinguished itself by absolute silence, mis-called neutrality.

When the innocent and peaceful people of Belgium were made the victims of sudden war deliberately commenced by Germany and carried on with atrocities then hitherto unknown among nations that even called themselves civilized, there was never a remonstrance by our Government to its friend and associate in the brotherhood of nations, but it stood by, like Paul at the martyrdom of Stephen, "consenting."

We thus became in real effect an ally of Germany, whom she intended to retain, and has since retained by skill in endless discussions. Had this Administration spoken, as I have no doubt every member of it would have wished to speak, Germany and her allies would have been told that we could have no intercourse with nations that disregarded the settled principles of international law as well as of humanity, and had they continued in such a course their representatives would have been sent home and our Ministers recalled.

Such action would have been in no sense any cause for war. In President Cleveland's Administration we compelled the recall of the British Minister for having advised an "English-Ameri-



HON. GEORGE F. EDMUNDS
(Formerly U. S. Senator
from Vermont)



HON. RICHARD OLNEY

can" to vote the Democratic ticket at an election. It would have been ridiculous folly for Germany to declare war against the United States, but if she had done so we should have been compelled to become a belligerent, which would have put

Germany and very likely all her allies, including the Turks, in the attitude of making voluntary and deliberate aggressive war upon us for having felt and expressed horror at their conduct with Belgium.

PRAISE FOR THE FEDERAL RESERVE SYSTEM

IN a speech at Chicago on October 18, Secretary of the Treasury McAdoo, after challenging the criticisms passed by Mr. Hughes and Colonel Roosevelt on the foreign policy of the Wilson Administration, devoted some time to an account of the successful operation of the Federal Reserve Act from the standpoint of the small banker and individual borrower.

In Mr. McAdoo's opinion the great prosperity of the country, leaving out of account the preservation of peace with all nations, is due more to the creation of our new financial system than to all other causes combined. Mr. McAdoo recalls the bitter opposition of Wall Street to the passage of this law and rightfully claims credit on behalf of the President and the Democratic majority in Congress for its enactment.

The Secretary further declares that our great business expansion of the past two years could not have occurred without the enlarged financial resources provided by the federal reserve system, which supplies both credit facilities and efficient credit machinery.

For the first time in our history, business men know that they can get ample credit whenever they need it for wholesome and legitimate business; they know that these credits are now elastic and automatically responsive to the business needs of the country; they know that they can now engage in business enterprises and undertakings with the certainty that essential credit is available at all times and at lower rates of interest than ever before known; they know that they can go forward in the development of the business and resources of this country with confidence; they know that they no longer have to fear the annual fall stringency in money, the widely fluctuating and extortionate rates of interest, and the deadly and paralyzing uncertainty as to whether credit could be had at any price and on any terms which characterized our financial system prior to the passage of the Federal Reserve Act.

More than all, they know that the credit resources of the country are no longer under the control of a small but powerful group in Wall Street who, prior to the passage of the Federal Reserve Act, controlled and dispensed credit as they saw fit, favoring those whom they preferred, punishing those who had incurred their displeasure. The old system produced disastrous money stringencies every year at crop-moving time, with

ruinous rates of interest, and precipitated upon American business men and farmers incalculable and irretrievable losses. Worse than all, the old system, with its inelastic currency and rigid limitations, caused appalling panics with periodical regularity that sapped the very business life of the nation.

Under the old system the reserve money of the banks was concentrated in a few great centers, chiefly New York City. Small banks throughout the country were frequently unable to get their money out of New York for the use of their own customers in times of panic. The old system provided an inelastic currency of fixed amount, based upon Government bonds, which did not expand or contract with the varying needs of business. The Federal Reserve Act has destroyed the concentration of bank reserves in the great financial centers and has distributed them throughout the country.

The Federal Reserve Act and the Farmer

The Hon. John Skelton Williams, Comptroller of the Currency, delivered an address at the annual convention of the Farmers' National Congress, at Indianapolis, on October 20, in which he directed attention to certain advantages derived by the farmers from the operation of the Federal Reserve Act. He pointed out, for example, that the provision in the law giving to every Federal Reserve Bank the right to discount notes of member banks secured by staple farm products is resulting in large sums of money being offered by banks to farmers at unusually low rates of interest for the purchase of young cattle, with the agreement that the loan shall be continued or renewed until the cattle can be fattened and made ready for market. Thus the farmer is put on the same plane as the business man as regards facilities for borrowing. Furthermore, after the crops are made the farmer can borrow money to enable him to hold them until he can get a satisfactory market and the Federal Reserve Banks require the member banks to charge the farmers on such loans not more than 6 per cent. interest.

ITALIAN OPTIMISM AS TO THE WAR

SO much has been written about the war in a pessimistic spirit, that it is quite refreshing to come across a thoroughly optimistic article, such as that of Signor Carlo Grilli in *Rivista Internazionale* (Rome). Of the present complex conditions he says:

The war has transplanted us into a fantastic world. Just as the mines appear inexhaustible in furnishing the raw material for the colossal armaments, so the great reservoirs of savings do not seem to be emptied by the continuous pouring out of thousands upon thousands of millions. Man seems to have a much less exaggerated estimate of wealth to-day, and pays little attention to the fact that a billion is a thousand millions.

The governments have also been forced to resort to extraordinary measures: wholesale requisitioning of crops and products, of the forces of labor and intellect; experiments in state socialism; rapid elaboration of social laws as war measures; and yet all these radical and far-reaching innovations no longer excite popular wonder. In fact, the war has gradually developed, even in the humblest stratum of the population, a singular adaptability. Everything begins to appear to be normal and natural; every new call of able-bodied men to the colors seems to be an entirely logical proceeding; every new rise in the cost of living is supported with less repugnance; even the individual sensibility to what directly touches the family grows less day by day through the force of habit.

The writer does not think that this state of mind should be termed a fatalistic resignation to a destiny that seems at the present moment to weigh upon all the sons of man. On the contrary, social activity is undiminished; the least productive element of the population, forced to participate in modern technical industry, has all at once, and not inefficiently, filled up the gaps left by the departure of the trained workmen.

In spite of the suspension of some industries in Italy, and the diminution of activity in many others, the sum total of wages has been maintained at a good level by the millions the state disburses daily in payments for war materials, and also by the large sums paid as pensions to soldiers' families, or for their assistance. To this must be added the amounts daily distributed by private benevolent associations. Thus it is that if we were to compare the budget of a workman's family to-day with that of a peace year, there would in most cases be only a small deficit; and frequently a balance to the good, either because of larger receipts for wages, or because of a more economical management of the household, when the wife has assumed the guidance of the family while her husband

is away. Indeed, the absence of the men of the family has favored economy, since it has cut down the outlay for alcoholic beverages, and has thus rendered less frequent the visits to the pawnshop.

As a result of these different factors, the small savings, which at first were sharply contracted, now form a notable element of the bank deposits, while the feverish activity of production for military uses provides occupation for the unemployed, with a consequent greater distribution of wages. It is a clearly observable fact that, apart from moral suffering, an evident degree of well-being begins to diffuse itself among the humblest classes of the population.

One thing is clearly apparent. The economic burden of war, under the modern system of finance, only falls in a minimum degree upon the generation which wages it. War, from an economic standpoint, does not signify the cessation of industry, but gives it a new direction; it does not signify the decrease of wealth, but the concentration of wealth. The state, making use of its credit, pays the expenses of the war without causing any inconvenience to the citizens, for the time being; indeed, as has been already noted, to their temporary advantage in many cases. This might be said to constitute an ideal economic condition. All are gainers, or seem to be gainers; the capitalists who lend their money, the contractors who furnish the products to the State, and who retain a part of the returns, and lastly the workmen, who absorb the remainder in small doses. All this results in a certain fictitious prosperity, while were the process of distribution normally slow, better and more solid benefits would be attained than can now be the case, when immense profits are quickly realized by the contractors, and when high wages are received even by poorly qualified workers.

The longer the war lasts, however, the better will become the adaptation of the economic fabric to the new state of things. There will be progressive adjustments, not only within the boundaries of each country, but also between the different countries. New channels of trade must and will be opened up, and there will be emigration from impoverished regions to those offering better opportunities.

The writer believes that the two contesting groups of nations will maintain their dualism after the war has ended, but that each will be strengthened by a closer economic union.

MAXIM GORKY AS A DEFENDER OF THE JEW

THE three greatest figures in Russian letters to-day are responsible for a volume of articles in defense of the Jew, collated and published in Russia some time ago under the title of *Stchit*—"The Shield." The editors of this volume are Maxim Gorky, Leonid Andreyev, and Feodor Sologub. Within a period of several months it has passed its third edition, and its contents assure it of more than contemporaneous interest. The flower of Russian journalism, belles-lettres, and philosophical thought is represented in this book by timely and comprehensive contributions. Maxim Gorky's part in the volume, in addition to editing, consists of an article and a story. After analyzing some of the negative characteristics of the Russian with a cutting mercilessness, Gorky writes:

The disgraceful (for Russian civilization) condition of the Jews in Russia is the result of our indifference toward ourselves, toward the strict and just demands of life.

In the interests of reason, justice, and civilization, it is impossible to permit that among us live a people without rights. We could never permit it had there been developed in us a feeling of self-respect.

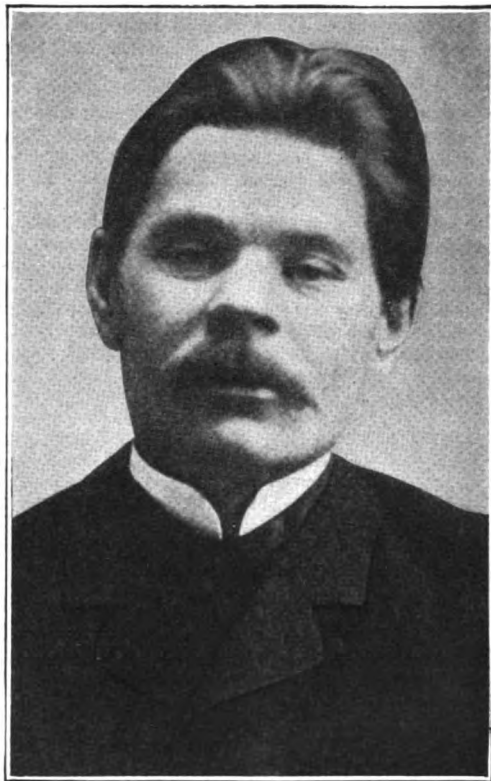
We have every reason to count the Jews as our friends. What have we to thank them for? They are and have been accomplishing lots of good along the paths trodden by the best Russians. And yet, without disgust and indignation, we carry on our conscience the shameful stain of Jewish wrongs. In that stain there is the dreadful poison of false charges, tears, and the blood of numberless pogroms.

Gorky then takes up the subject of anti-Semitism, and in what he has to say about it there is no lack of feeling.

I shall be unable to discuss anti-Semitism, Jew-hatred, in the manner in which it should be discussed. I shall be unable to do so not because I lack power or words, but because something which I cannot overcome prevents me from it. I could find words sufficiently harsh, heavy, and pointed to throw into the faces of the man-haters, but for that purpose I would have to descend into some dirty pit, to put myself on the same plane with people whom I don't respect, and who are organically odious to me.

I am inclined to think that anti-Semitism exists as indisputable as leprosy or other diseases, and that the world will be cured of it only through civilization which, though slowly, nevertheless does liberate us from diseases and vices.

This, of course, does not free me from the duty to combat in all possible ways the development of anti-Semitism, to guard people, to the limit of my abilities, against the contagion of Jew hatred, for



MAXIM GORKY, THE RUSSIAN NOVELIST

the Jew of to-day is my close friend. I am one of those Russians who stand the oppression of the Jewish people . . .

After paying a generous tribute to Jewish morals, wisdom, and idealism, the celebrated Russian author continues his appeal.

It is unbearable to see the people who have created so many beautiful, wise, and necessary things for the world live among us oppressed by special laws limiting their rights to life work and liberty in all possible manners.

It is necessary, for it is right and useful, to equalize the Jews with the Russians in rights. This must be done not only from respect for the people that have served humanity and us so long, but from respect for our own selves.

This simple, humane task must be tackled at once, for the hatred of the Jews is growing in Russia, and if we should not endeavor to stop right now the growth of this blind hatred, it will react detrimentally on the development of civilization in our country.

One must remember that our own people have known little good and, therefore, easily believe all the bad things preached to them by man-haters. There is no natural dislike for the Jew in the breast of the Russian moujik. On the con-

trary, he shows even some inclination toward the religious side of Israel, charming in its democracy. In spite of this, however, when a Russian moujik hears of the persecutions of the Jews, he says with the indifference of the Oriental: "The innocent are not persecuted and not punished." He certainly ought to know that in holy Russia the innocent are but too often persecuted and punished.

Our village does not like restless people, even when their restlessness is directed toward the achievement of a better life. All of us are very Oriental; we like rest, stagnation. And a rebel, be he even a Job, excites our interest only in an abstract manner.

And the Jews are defenseless, and this condition is especially harmful in the circumstances of the Russian life. Dostoyevski, who knew profoundly the Russian soul, has more than once pointed out that defenselessness arouses in us a passionate yearning for cruelty, for crime. In recent years there have appeared in Russia many

people who have been taught to think that they are the cream of mankind, and that their foe is the foreigner, and, first of all, the Jew.

These people have been persuaded for many years, persistently and steadily, to believe that all Jews are restless people, strikers, rebels.

Then they were informed that the Jews like to drink the blood of kidnapped children. In our own days they are being inspired with the belief that the Jews of Poland are spies and traitors.

To this latter accusation Maxim Gorky replies in another article in which he shows that the Russian disasters and defeats were due to Russians solely. The names of ex-War Minister Sukhomlinoff, of Colonel Myasoyedoff, who was hanged for treason, and of General Grigoryev, who delivered Kovno to the Germans, are cited by Gorky as sufficient proof of his contention.

FOUR MONTHS IN RUSSIA DURING THE WAR

A FRENCH writer, Jacques Bainville, gives a highly interesting account—in a recent issue of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*—of Russia and the Russian people, based upon personal experience and historical insight. We give below some of the salient points of his elaborate study.

It would be a mistake to suppose, the writer remarks, that Russia is but little sensible of the war. One is inclined to think so, owing to the vast extent of the Empire and its resources in men—greater than those of any other country. Russia has mobilized millions upon millions of soldiers; she needs them to carry on the war on three fronts, from Riga to the shores of the Euphrates. Last winter the writer saw numerous bodies of men, legally exempt up to that time, called to the colors. They were fine, robust youths, strikingly well equipped. Did not the Turkish officers say after the capture of Erzerum that the Russians had carried the day by their boots? It was these sturdy recruits who reinforced Brusiloff's armies, enabling him to undertake his brilliant offensive last summer.

These levies do not, it may be, affect life in general as much as they do in France. Yet they are felt in many ways. Last winter the problem of heating became rather serious; there were scarcely enough arms to supply the needed amount of wood; transportation, monopolized by military exigency, was insufficient for the needs of a capital so remotely situated. Thus there ensued a dearth of provisions, necessitating a recourse

to meatless days in an agricultural land which produces every necessary article of food in abundance.

Severe restrictions were placed, above all, upon social distractions. The theater, the ballet, it is true, retain their brilliance and attraction. More than any aliment, music and the theater are prime requisites of the Russians. One must not gauge the spirit of the Russians in that respect, in this war, by what prevails in France. "They do not share our conception of mourning, our idea that the loss of a relative or a national misfortune should cause us to forego pleasures, even esthetic ones."

Night life, usually so gay, is, however, almost entirely suspended. The closing of the restaurants at eleven in winter, at one in other seasons, is a tremendous innovation. Above all, the interdiction of wine and alcoholic drinks is a sign of the times, the greatest index, perhaps, of the gravity with which the Russian Government envisages the war. The prohibition of *vodka* has been an indisputable benefit of autocracy, which alone could take a stand against private as opposed to the general interests. The writer noted the disappearance of drunkenness and the signs of general well-being on every side, despite the high cost of living. He expressed his pleased surprise at the latter circumstance to M. Bark, the Minister of Finance, who unhesitatingly replied that it was due to the prohibition of alcohol, which, freeing the rural population from a dominating passion,

permitted peasant savings for the first time in Russia.

But to this inhibition of *vodka*, the people's drink, a corresponding measure had to be adopted affecting the higher classes. Hence the interdiction of choice wines and liqueurs—a measure rigorously maintained despite customs and manners. Here we have a tradition of Imperial Russia—reforms imposed from above. It is thus that Peter the Great grafted Western civilization upon his people, compelling, among other things, his boyars to part with their long beards. That the law regarding drink has now and then been evaded goes without saying. At Moscow drunken revelries were notorious, customary things, regarded as inoffensive. But there, too, they have disappeared, or must at least hide from the vigilant eye of authority. So that fighting Russia is a sober Russia, regardful of its dignity. It should be added that *kvas*, an old popular rural beverage, made of bread or apples, has taken the place of wine. Thus by a curious reversion Russia, down into the details of domestic life, is being "renationalized." That tendency is, indeed, one of the most sensibly felt general effects of the war.

We find a similar phenomenon, in a different field, in the question of language. The order prohibiting the speaking of German, affixed upon every wall, has met, perhaps, with greater resistance. The habit was ingrained; it was due, notably in the capital, to manifold causes—historical, ethnical, to commercial relations, proximity, an immigration which became essentially a colonization. A thousand circumstances, great and small, evidenced what other countries termed German enterprise. Against this invasion the war has caused an energetic reaction. In the Crimean War the Michel Theater never closed its doors. That war was a war of diplomacy: the same cannot be said of the stupendous shock of peoples and nationalities to-day. That is why the new baptism of the capital founded by Peter the Great has so remarkable a symbolic significance—it is the expression of a new state of things.

If the war signifies for Russia as well as all the belligerents the beginning of a new era, many symptoms point to nationalism as the characteristic trait of the future. The question of language is worthy of attention in that regard. Formerly autocracy, in order to introduce European civilization into Russia, had conquered the native hatred of the foreigner. To-day, the tendency is to dispense with Western educators, to look upon

Russian ideas, language, literature as sufficient—an evolution felt in the air since years, but hastened by the war.

For the rest, one often hears the idea expressed—under various forms, very vague ones at times—that the war of 1914 will mark the date of a deliverance for Russia. This liberation refers to foreign influence. We must remember that the Russian philosophic conception of the conflict differs from that of the Western powers. Russia's age-long relations with Germany have been of a somewhat different nature from those of the Latins. "The German does not appear to the Russian as the barbarian whose hordes have from century to century crossed the Rhine in order to conquer and devastate our soil. The Germans are for us what the Tartar-Mongols were for the Slavs. To the Russian people, on the other hand, the German was known as a colonist, an exploiting parasite who treated the moujik as a beast. . . . Hence the hatred of the Russian peasant for the *Niemetz*, the stranger, the 'dumb one,' who does not speak his language, who despises, beats, and exploits him. . . . It was this feeling that prompted the popular uprisings in Moscow last year, aimed (at times with a regrettable lack of discernment) against everything that smacked of German origin."

On three fronts Russia is fighting three different foes. And this diversity imparts varied forms and aspects to her conflict. In the Caucasus she is engaged in a struggle with the Turks. And the Turk is the hereditary foe, the one against whom she has always had to fight, against whom her people cherish a historic grudge. In this respect, too, her aims are traditional. They are universally felt and understood. The object is to achieve the old national program, to reach the open sea—a vital necessity, . . . and it is that idea, that instinct, that hope, which lends wings to the armies of Grand Duke Nicholas, invading Asia Minor.

The Austrian front, however, bears a different physiognomy. There we have a variegated adversary of many nationalities. On that front, full of surprises, the Russian soldier has a dim sense that the war is a political one, in which national passions play but a small part, since it happens now and again that he finds himself among his own race.

Moreover, the Austro-Hungarian army, even its sturdy elements, devoted to their flag, is far from resembling the relentless war machine set up by the Prussians. In the Austrian soldier the Russian soldier may find a man. As to the German soldier, he is the "devil," as he says—that is, an enemy, cruel, haughty, obstinate.

GERMAN COLONISTS IN RUSSIA

CONSIDERABLE interest attaches to the subject of the immense number of German settlers and their descendants living in certain portions of Russia. The *Süd-deutsche Monatshefte* (Leipzig) seriously discusses the possibility of forming "a new Alsace-Lorraine" of the Baltic provinces in the event of German victory. We leave our readers to imagine the feelings with which this proposition is received in France. The Leipzig magazine remarks:

We have seen that the Russian papers complain that too many of our compatriots have installed themselves in their country, and that the nobles of the Baltic provinces have expressed too freely their preference that the Germanic cause should triumph. In other words, there are Germans in that part of the land who have remained what they ought to be—but who knows how many have succumbed to the Slavic influence?

This war has shown the enormous power of Russia; it has shown the ease with which this great country has been able to regain strength after the war with Japan. If this Russification continues with as much ardor for a few more decades Russia will crush Germany and the rest of Occidental Europe. Hence this campaign must be carried on till the re-establishment of German influence is secured. This can only be accomplished by depriving Russia of the provinces where German colonists have established themselves, and where they now outnumber the Slavic population.

There are German centers in different parts of Russia; entire Swabian villages are to be found in the Caucasus between Tiflis and Bakou; in these the churches, the town halls, the drug stores are all German; the inhabitants speak our tongue and have conserved the customs of the country of their origin. There are more than 500,000 Germans in Ukraine, Volhynia, descendants of the colonists of 1768, for several years ago 20,000 German farmers scattered throughout Russia established themselves in the Baltic provinces.

In February and March of this year the Germans of Volhynia and of southern Russia sent delegations to ask whether we could, after the war, incorporate them in great Germany, and give them the happiness of belonging to the great fatherland. No answer could be given them; but there can be no fear that our emperor, when his day of victory comes, will leave our two million compatriots in such an embarrassing situation.

Even if the present war should have no other result than the acquisition of the Baltic provinces—this Russian Alsace-Lorraine—we should not have suffered in vain. Our two million brothers, become Germans once more, will amalgamate with themselves the already Germanized Letts, and this will mean for us the acquisition of lands rich and vast, which will be of use to our steadily growing people.

The old Hanseatic cities like Lübeck will once more be prosperous, and the Baltic will become what it ought to be—a German sea. And we shall re-enter into possession of one of the most beautiful jewels ravished from our crown by the cupidity of those who profited by our momentary weakness.

MONGOLIA AND RUSSIAN-JAPANESE ACTIVITIES

LOCKED in between the territories of Siberia and China, the vast Mongolian kingdom has no means to reach the outside world. Soon after the Chinese revolution, Outer Mongolia, which is the part lying north of the Gobi Desert, declared its independence. Jebtsun Dampa Hutuktu—the Venerable Sacred Saint—was declared emperor. The Russian Government recognized the autonomy of Outer Mongolia in 1912. And in 1913 Russia and China agreed as to Mongolia, the former recognizing the latter's suzerainty over Outer Mongolia and the latter recognizing its autonomy.

But, though Mongolia is nominally under Chinese domination. Russia became interested in northwestern Mongolia, Japan in southwestern. Russia loaned two million rubles to Mongolia. In 1914 a bank was established in the kingdom with the directorate in

Petrograd. Russia conceded to Mongolia the right to construct its own railroads with Russian "coöperation." In March, 1915, Mongolia issued its own legal currency, one side in Russian and the other in Mongolian. All this took place before the Russian-Japanese convention of last summer was signed. What is taking place in Urga, the capital of Outer Mongolia, at present is shown by the following newspaper quotations. The Harbin *Vestnik*, a Russian-Manchurian newspaper, publishes a note delivered by the Russian Imperial Consul at Urga to the Mongolian Government:

In a despatch received from the Imperial Russian Government, it is stated that many posts in the autonomous Mongolian Government are held by persons of ecclesiastical orders, and on account of this misunderstandings often arise between them and the temporal authorities. This friction not only hampers the solution of impor-

tant and urgent problems, but also is harmful to the good relations between the two nations. The Russian Government therefore requests the Mongolian Government to dismiss the ecclesiastic persons holding high positions, and replace them with men of secular character. In delivering this to you in the name of the Russian Imperial Government, I beg the Mongolian Government to communicate this to the head of autonomous Mongolia, Bogdo Jebtsun Dampa Hutuktu-Khan, and let me know of the decision.

The newspaper states that the Mongolian Government will reply that the Russian note raises a question over which Russia has no jurisdiction, as it is Mongolia's own internal affair. The Russian Government, however, will undoubtedly gain her point. Soon after the above note was sent, China received from Russia a note protesting against Mongolia's sending representatives to the Chinese Parliament. The correspondent of the *Russkoye Slovo*, of Moscow, writes to his paper:

In Chinese political circles the note of the Russian Government on the question of Mongolia's representation in the Chinese Parliament is being discussed with much interest. Chinese politicians, in spite of the Russian view, are endeavoring to prove that the participation of Outer Mongolia in the Chinese Parliament is not contradictory to the Chinese-Russian agreement of 1913 in regard to Mongolia's autonomy. Especially so, as Russia recognized Mongolia as a territorial part of China. From authoritative statements it appears

that the Chinese point of view will stand no criticism, and is condemned to fail. By the treaty of 1913, Russia recognized China's suzerainty over Mongolia. She will interpret this clause, in all probability, so as not to allow China to control Outer Mongolia through legislation.

The interesting point about this latest note is that Russia is taking the side of Mongolia in a situation which, so far, did not provoke any protest from the Mongolian Government.

Japan's interest in southeastern Mongolia goes back several years. Japan first procured railroad concessions in Mongolia. Then, in March, 1915, Japan demanded of China exclusive mining rights in eastern Mongolia, the right for Japanese to settle, and a series of other demands. China had to give in. In August, 1916, there were enough Japanese settlers in eastern Mongolia to dare to disobey Chinese orders. The Chenchitaung riot that followed was cause enough for Japan to send her troops to Mongolia and present a new list of demands to China. On October 10, Japan demanded that "Japanese be allowed to police Manchuria and Mongolia wherever they deem necessary." The correspondent cabling of this latest Japanese move writes that "the tone of the Japanese representations is peremptory, and shows a disposition to force the situation."

BRIEUX AS A BIG BROTHER TO BLIND SOLDIERS

THE eminent French playwright and propagandist, Eugene Brieux, has conceived the happy idea of constituting himself a special godfather to all the blind poilus. To this end he has addressed to them a series of four letters. These missives, which are quite free from sentimental banalities, are written in a style whose charm springs from its simplicity and sincerity. They contain information, advice, and encouragement for the men who are trying to adjust themselves to a new life wherein their eyes are in their finger-tips.

The dramatist offers to answer any question pertinent to the needs of any blind soldier who will write to him, or to put him in communication with some one of his fellows who has encountered a like misfortune, and has learned to take up his life anew with serenity and happiness as well as courage.

The letters are primarily intended for

agricultural laborers and mechanics, though a few lines are addressed to those in clerical positions. They are copied in Braille so that every man who has learned this system can read them for himself. While not intended for publication, they form such a notable piece of social service that the editors of *Les Annales* (Paris) requested the privilege of printing them; they accordingly appear in that weekly, beginning with the issue of July 31.

FIRST LETTER

You have been wounded in the eyes, my comrade, and are in the hospital, with a bandage around your head. You are sad, and I understand that; you are disquieted about your future, and that is quite natural. You are asking yourself whether you will be able to see well enough in the future to take up your old trade, even whether you'll be able to walk without guidance. I can't say as to that, since I have not seen your wound.

When this is read to you you will have recov-

ered from your immediate suffering and will be ready to think of your future. I wish to aid you. Since the month of April, 1915, I have lived with soldiers afflicted as you are; I have followed many, step by step, from their arrival at the hospital till their arrival at home after a stay at the school of re-education. I will not undertake to console you. When I am ill I feel like beating the people who pity me. To pity a man is to



EUGENE BRIEUX, THE FRENCH PLAYWRIGHT
AND CHAMPION OF THE BLIND SOLDIER

humiliate him. I wish to help you and to make you profit by that which I have learned from living with those who are in your fix. I will not tell you you are a hero. We know that, and you know it. I will say to you that you are a man and that you must act, not as if you were in despair, but bravely, like a man who will not let himself be beaten down; who will not waste his time in weeping over a misfortune which no one can remedy, and who is going to go through his life with his face turned not towards the past, but towards the future.

What will it be, this future of yours? As far as concerns your wound we do not know. Let us hope that things go well. But it may take a long time—a very long time. It is even possible that to make sure of a cure you may have to wear a bandage for many months. This time must be utilized in learning to live and to work as do those who have never been able to see, and who are all quite cheerful. It repeat it: who are all quite cheerful!

What do you risk by this? Nothing. Or rather, nothing but good. In case you get better you'll soon forget what you have learned, and at any rate you'll have kept from being bored. In the contrary event, you will have gained time in the adapting of yourself to your new life. When one knows beforehand that in playing a game one is bound to win, there's no need to hesitate; play your hand. . . .

* * *

What is it you must do? You must begin to work. You must learn one of the trades in which

only fingers, and not eyes, are needed. There are such trades, and quite a lot of them, and ones in which you can earn money. That was well known even before the war, and in every country there were self-supporting blind people. . . . Since the war, many who have lost their eyes have already become established. There are farmers, brushmakers, chair-menders, carpet-makers. One man who was a joiner has taken up his old trade. Then there are package-wrappers, mechanics, poultry-raisers, cobblers, and even a hairdresser.

Naturally you don't believe me. In your place I wouldn't either. Only I can prove I'm telling you the truth. You have only to write to me. I will give you the number of the regiment, the battalion, and the company of a man working at the trade you happen to be interested in. I will tell you where he is now; then you can write to him directly, or even go and have a talk with him. . . . Do what I tell you: demand proofs. I shall not be annoyed; on the contrary, I'll be delighted.

You won't believe me any better if I tell you they are happy; I'd rather have them tell you so themselves. Now, since blind men were cheerful before the war, and the soldiers blinded in the war who have begun to work again are happy, why shouldn't it be the same with you? . . . Are you built different from them? Are you stupider? More awkward? Less courageous? No? Then there's no reason why you shouldn't succeed where they have.

You must know, too, that you will not be abandoned. The Government gives you a pension. And that is no more than it ought to. To this pension of 975 francs for a private will be added 100 francs for the military medal, and very probably 225 francs more by way of "augmentation of pension." That will give you 1,300 francs, or 3 francs, 55 centimes per day (about 70 cents). Not a fortune, to be sure, but in the country it would certainly keep one from starving.



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TEACHING A BLIND SOLDIER THE CARPENTRY TRADE

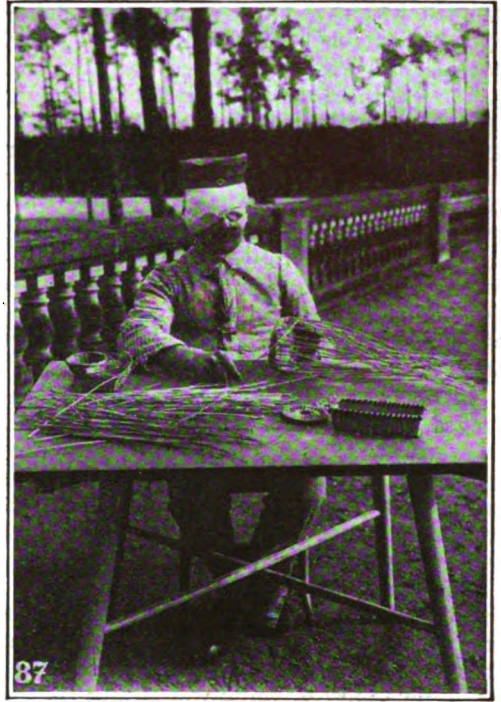
If you have need of help, or if you fall sick, or if you marry, or if you have children, there are societies which will come to your assistance. Their names and addresses will be given you. But it is to be hoped that you will have no such need, but that you can take care of yourself by the product of your own labor plus your pension. Therefore you must begin to learn a trade as soon as possible. . . . I have said this already to many of your comrades, and some replied: "If I learn a trade they'll reduce my pension." That is not true, and I will give you proof. Others have said to me: "I have enough to live on with my pension; I do not need to bother my head with learning a trade." I proved to them that they were wrong and I will tell you how. Others yet have said: "I'll never get anywhere with my 'windows broken.'" Now they know that they were mistaken. I will tell you about that in my second letter.

Voici my name and my address:

BRIEUX,
de l'Académie française,
Paris.

In his second letter M. Brioux further urges the learning of a handicraft and gives the addresses of schools. In the third he discusses the choice of a craft and strongly advises the learning of Braille, not merely for the pastime or instruction to be got, but so the blind man can carry on his own correspondence and keep his own accounts.

The final letter is devoted to domestic problems, such as the return home, the choice of a wife, etc. He very wisely recommends the returning son not to allow his family to bewail his fate nor treat him like an invalid. As to marriage he has two words of caution—to look not for the mercenary females who are tempted by the glitter of the pension, and not to be tempted into espousing a damsel of higher social degree who may offer her hand through an impulse of pity



Photograph by Paul Thompson

A BLIND GERMAN SOLDIER LEARNING BASKET
WEAVING

and romance. Here speaks the dramatist from his wisdom concerning the effervescence of human emotions:

Resist such as these with all your strength. At the time such a person is doubtless sincere, but in a year, or five years, or six, she will no longer consider you a hero; her sentimental crisis will be past, and you will both be very unhappy, feeling the gulf between you.

COÖPERATIVE HOUSING OF MUNITION WORKERS

MANY large engineering and other factories have recently been erected in the rural districts of Great Britain to insure healthier environment and reduce the cost of living. A recent issue of *Engineering* (London) shows how some of the problems connected with this sudden expansion have been solved, and the results are interesting, not only as bearing on a difficult social question of the day, but as showing how an industrial community can be established with the workers living in isolated dwellings, yet with coöperative means of supplying food and other domestic services.

In one of the districts where large factories of Messrs. Vickers, the English ordnance manufacturers, were located, it became necessary to provide accommodations for several thousand workers with their families. To have attempted the rapid erection of dwelling houses would have required the services of a number of builders and other laborers who were not available, and, furthermore, it would have locked up considerable capital in buildings which, in the future, possibly would not be needed in that particular district for such numbers of work-people. Accordingly the plan of housing

adopted was to secure certain public buildings and to rent *all* available large private houses, even those in isolated locations and to convert them into flats or small dwelling apartments with one or two bedrooms and a sitting-room, or into separate cubicles. Other buildings were transformed into canteens or restaurants and large recreation rooms. One of the largest buildings became a hospital with 200 beds, a fully equipped operating-room, and all necessary accessories. This was found to be particularly advantageous, as so many of the civic hospitals had been taken over for wounded soldiers.

In no cases were the large buildings arranged as dormitories for the mechanics and other workers; as a general rule, each preferred at least a separate cubicle of his or her own, and some proper form of division had to be made of the single men, single women, young boys, young girls, and married couples with and without families. In this division due care had to be exerted to keep the different nationalities apart or under harmonious conditions. In some cases a married couple with a family would take charge of a dwelling house, keeping the first floor and looking after the lodgers on the second.

In other cases a dwelling house would be divided into flats, and various forms of arrangement were made. In some cases kitchens were provided in the general hostels, and meals were served to the lodgers either in their lodgings or at the works canteen when they were on duty. The vegetable gardens possessed by the larger houses were used in connection with the commissary department and, in addition, a large farm was secured whose development was systematically carried on. A central cooking and catering department was organized, which provided the furnishing of cooking and other necessary appliances for the separate houses, as well as for preparing food when it was not cooked on the premises. As the area covered by the various hostels was 120 square miles and food had to be served over this area, a fleet of motor vehicles was maintained so that the various dishes could be kept hot in transit while being distributed to the various houses.

Canteens were built at the works to feed the men and women actually at work with a minimum of delay, while the wives and families of the workers were supplied with food at their homes. In addition mineral waters and beer were furnished, as it was believed that by distributing beer the men would be inclined to remain at home rather

than to go out to licensed places. A comprehensive charge was arranged for each person, including all supplies, use of furniture, table linen, gas, cooking and food. The schedule of charges was as follows:

	PER WEEK			
	£	s.	d.	
Single men.....	0	18	6	(\$4.62½)
Married couples.....	1	10	0	(\$7.50)
Children living with parents, boys or girls, up to eight years old.....	0	4	6	(\$1.12½)
Children living with parents, boys or girls, between eight and fourteen..	0	5	6	(\$1.37½)
Children living with parents, girls, between fourteen and eighteen.....	0	14	0	(\$3.50)
Women over eighteen.....	0	14	0	(\$3.50)
Boys between fourteen and eighteen	0	14	0	(\$3.50)

In some cases where highly educated women were employed a special hostel was maintained where the charge was 18 shillings (\$4.50) per week.

The transportation of the various workers was also a problem, as there were no train or trolley services, so that twenty-eight large motor omnibuses, each capable of accommodating forty workers, were maintained to carry the workers to and from the factory at a rate of one-half pence (one cent) per mile. A special garage for these omnibuses was 120 feet wide by 75 feet deep, their maintenance presenting a problem in itself.

In addition to the material care of the working people, the social and religious oversight was not neglected, and a chaplain was appointed, who had had considerable experience with working people and was acquainted with their work. The chaplain's duties included, among other matters, the settlement of disputes among the families living in each hostel, attendance on the children, the organizing of concerts and recreation, and general assistance in promoting the welfare of the people. A theater and a concert hall with an organ were erected and suitable entertainments were organized, even on Sunday, to which the workers were brought in the motor omnibuses mentioned.

An experienced market gardener was charged with the oversight of the gardens connected with the two hundred hostels and the residents were encouraged to raise as many vegetables and fruits as possible, and also flowers, prizes being offered for the most artistic displays.

Experiments in coöperative housekeeping such as described, are beginning to be common in Great Britain.

A SPANISH-PORTUGUESE UNION

THE aims of a truly national foreign policy for Spain are set forth by Señor Eloy Luis André in *Nuestro Tiempo*. First and foremost in his opinion comes a federal union of the two nations dividing the Iberian Peninsula. This, he declares, should be secured at any cost short of a resort to violent means. He finds that the existing disunion of sentiment between Spain and Portugal has been fostered and sustained by France and England, and can only be remedied by breaking the ties that bind Portugal to England's imperial policy, and by freeing the culture of that land from the influence exercised by the teachings of Voltaire, and Comte.

A most important result of the union of the two countries would be a solution of the problems connected with their African colonial possessions, and also with those regarding the nations that were founded by them in America.

Señor André does not hesitate to call Spain and Portugal the only legitimate heirs of the Roman and Latin spirit, which they assimilated, while not ceasing to be Celtiberians, and he thinks that this precious inheritance can only be preserved by their union.

It has been said that the lesser European nations tend to gravitate toward the greater. To profit by this tendency, Spain must develop a potent individuality and independence, and must cease to be subservient to French bankers and English merchants. If a nation of from twenty to twenty-five million inhabitants is not a nation of the first rank, this is because it lacks the will to be so. With the weakening of the power of France and England in Europe the chances of a union between Spain and Portugal will increase.

The writer, who is evidently disposed to trust in an eventual triumph of the Central Powers, believes that while favoring a consolidated and strengthened Islam, they will none the less be compelled to set certain limits to the development of pan-Islamism. Nevertheless, the preservation of the common interests of Spain and Portugal in North Africa will require their united and harmonious action. The control of the Straits of Gibraltar, and of northeastern Africa interests the Spanish and Portuguese more than any other peoples. Not only is this region of prime importance in itself, but it offers the natural route to South America. If Spain and Portugal are able to initiate and maintain a comprehensive foreign policy,



THE NATURAL ROUTE FROM EUROPE TO SOUTH AMERICA

(This map shows the importance of Northeast Africa to Spain and Portugal)

and assure themselves of the control of this route, it is destined to become the connecting link between the Iberian civilizations of Europe and America.

The three South American republics associated in the so-called A B C alliance, which gives unity of action to the policy of Argentina, Brazil, and Chile, can serve as models. With the disappearance of all schemes of conquest or aggression of the one upon the other, there will eventually be realized an ideal union of twenty republics constituting a strong, prosperous, and highly civilized centre of Spanish culture in the New World. However, the connection between the new and the old regions of Iberian civilization should not only concern ideals, should not only be one depending on a common language; the bond should also be an economic one and should include all the forms of Hispano-American culture.

In England and the United States the writer sees the chief obstacles to the spread of Spanish influence in America. This he attributes in good part to the overreadiness of the Spanish-Americans themselves to adopt foreign ideas and customs. To consolidate their national qualities and independence, they must follow a common policy as to im-

migration, rendering it possible for the immigrant to become part of the new country, and making him feel that his savings contribute to the productivity and wealth of the land in which he has taken up his abode. If the European emigrant is held aloof from those of native birth, there will never arise in South America nationalities worthy to perpetuate Spanish civilization, that civilization to which South American countries owe their life and being, with all their defects and all their virtues. What matter if Spanish be the language of this score of republics, when their economic and spiritual standards are not Spanish?

Recapitulating the requirements of Spain's foreign policy, Señor André states them, in the main, as follows: In the Mediterranean, free commercial intercourse with the Orient, to assure which there should be a trans-

African railroad from Ceuta to Alexandria; the maintenance of a balance of power between the Germanic and the Latin nations; a common understanding to resist the spread of Pan-Islamism; African colonization, Spain and Portugal being accorded a sphere of influence from Oran to Cape Verde; the maintenance of a continental and intercontinental equilibrium in the Straits of Gibraltar. In the Atlantic: the abatement of England's power, for it is that country which stands in the way of Portugal's union with Spain; emancipation from the cultural influence of France, a country whose interests in Africa are opposed to those of Spain, and which views with disfavor any aggrandizement of Spain; lastly, the encouragement of good relations with the Spanish-American republics, laying greater stress upon the Spanish quality than upon the wider Latin quality.

MOONSCAPES

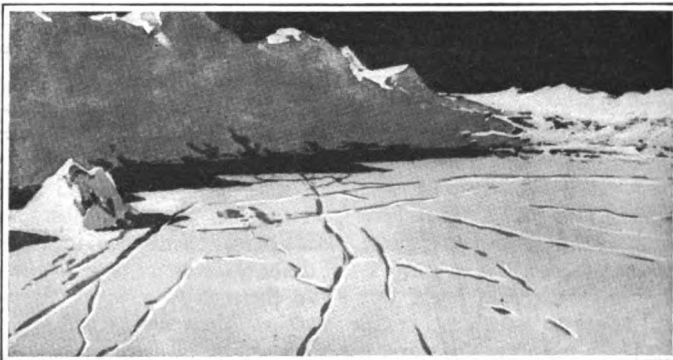
THE surface of the moon as a field of exploration has attracted an astronomer at Port Clyde, Me., Mr. Russell W. Porter, who contributes to the October number of *Popular Astronomy* (Northfield, Minn.) several drawings of "moonscapes" made to represent the moon's scenery as it might appear to an observer "from some crater-lip or the vast expanse of one of her sea-floors."

Mr. Porter has spent many years above the Arctic Circle and in his observations of the moon through a sixteen-inch reflector, he was struck by the likeness of the general aspect of lunar scenery to that of our own polar regions. One of his "moonscapes," reproduced herewith, seems to show a counterpart of the long reaches of the floes in the polar ocean traversed by immense pressure ridges and tidal cracks. Moreover, the

effect was heightened, as he says, by the dazzling whiteness and clear-cut shadows, the desolation, and the loneliness.

Although the main features and heights were plotted by the rules of perspective, Mr. Porter claims for his "moonscapes" no great degree of accuracy. In fact, he is willing to have them regarded as "flights of fancy." They do, however, represent what the telescope revealed to him. The height of the eye was assumed arbitrarily, as well as the direction and height of the sun.

As compared with the ghastly whiteness of the moon's surface, Mr. Porter has developed a fuller appreciation of our own atmosphere with its softening tints and haze, clouds and color. Lunar scenery, on the other hand, is made up of masses of intense white against an inky sky.



A MOONSCAPE DRAWN BY RUSSELL W. PORTER

LATENT MICROBISM AND ITS DANGERS

MANY a man who has recovered from a severe wound still retains within his body some foreign substance, such as a bullet, a fragment of shell, or a bit of metal, cloth, or earth. Even in this day of the X-ray this may occur, since in the case of a bad wound, or one which is suppurating freely, or where the intruding object is deeply imbedded, or located in an awkward place, the surgeon may prefer to secure the healing of the wound and the restoration of the patient's strength before undertaking the necessary operation for its removal.

Sometimes this subsequent operation is followed by infection in spite of the greatest precaution as to aseptic care. Such infection was considered by Verneuil to be due to latent microbism, *i.e.*, the presence of nocuous germs on the foreign body, which remained quiescent until the circumstances of the operation produced conditions favorable to their development. This view has now been supported by careful investigation on the part of MM. Lécène and Trovin. The *Bibliothèque Universelle* (Lausanne) presents an abstract of their report on the subject before the French Academy of Sciences:

In what does latent microbism consist? It is that in wounds containing a foreign body gen-

erally contaminated, the tissues react by endeavoring to protect the rest of the organism by means of the fabrication of a sort of fibrous shell or case around the intruder. At the same time there is suppuration due to the proliferation of the microbes. It happens then that there may be nests of microbes or spores within this fibrous shell or even imbedded in its walls.

If the suppuration is checked and suppressed either by antiseptics or by the action of the white blood corpuscles, the wound may be healed and cicatrized; nevertheless the nests of microbes in the fibrous shell may retain their vitality though remaining latent because of conditions unfavorable to development. But as soon as the wound is reopened for the extraction of the projectile they are liberated and revived; they begin to pullulate and the wound suppurates afresh despite aseptic precautions.

MM. Lécène and Trovin do not rest content with this explanation that such a wound begins to suppurate because of the germs which it has retained. They make a special recommendation that in cases where the wounded man had suffered from tetanus no fresh operation should be performed upon him even after complete recovery without a preliminary injection of antitetanic serum. Otherwise the surgeon may see his patient die, in spite of the technical success of the operation, and this though months may have elapsed since the original infection.

AFRICAN SONGS

A RECENT number of the *Gartenlaube* (Berlin) contains an interesting account of the music improvised among savage tribes. It is these improvisations on the spur of the moment from which the truest idea of the native music can be obtained, since the quick ear of the negro enables him to catch European melodies from chance contacts, and these rapidly pervade the country and pass from group to group.

We have long known that negroes have a particular predilection for music. They sing all the time, everywhere, apropos of everything. It is, indeed, of very great interest to observe how the art of song aids a race which can neither read nor write to preserve the memory of certain events. Thus there was composed at Stanley Falls, a few years ago, a song called *O Lupembe*, in honor of the major then resident. As surely and as rapidly as the most popular of our own refrains this song spread over the whole extent

of the great empire, and to-day the farthest echoes resound with its accents.

It is becoming very difficult to recognize native airs with certitude. When the colored soldiers return to their homes they carry the regimental tunes with them, and their fellow-citizens immediately learn these and repeat them incessantly. There is scarcely any occasion when the white man can seize upon an authentic improvisation except when one is made in his own honor while upon the march.

At a certain moment the negro possessed of the most vigorous voice, whether it rings true or not, commences a *recitatif*, broken at regular intervals by refrains chanted in chorus by the entire caravan. The European who conducts the caravan is the hero of the song, and no eulogy is adjudged too magnificent for him.

If he is a man of gentleness and peace, he hears himself praised as a formidable warrior who has slain hundreds of thousands of men. If he is short and lean he is described as a colossal giant. If he has killed a few wild beasts he is acclaimed as a Gargantua. . . .

THE CAREER OF MOUNET-SULLY

WE have already published in these pages a brief account of the youth of the famous French tragedian, Mounet-Sully, for whom life's final curtain fell on the first day of March. There now comes to hand an admirable résumé of the chief events in his career in the biographical article in the September number of *Larousse Mensuel* (Paris).

We quote first this excellent description of his striking personality:

This artist had admirable physical endowments—an imposing figure, a noble bearing and gait, harmonious gestures, and a profound aspect, veiled later with a tragic sadness. This tragedian, who was a sculptor in his hours of leisure, modeled his own person in Olympian attitudes. But he was also able, on occasion, to quit these hieratic poses, to leap and bend his body with the suppleness of a great feline (as in Hamlet, for example). In the same manner, his voice, ordinarily full, warm, and vibrant, was now attenuated to a soft and languorous *melopée*, and again swelled to a thunderous roar, or exacerbated in inarticulate cries.

It was not until he had reached the age of twenty-three that Mounet-Sully's mother gave her consent to the pursuit of a histrionic career by her gifted son. He then went to Paris and, after studying three years with Ballande, who had first inspired him with enthusiasm for the actor's art when a boy of fourteen, was able to enter the Conservatoire. Here he was in the classes of the distinguished comedian, Bressant, who had little sympathy for Mounet's ambitions to enact tragedy, which he adjudged a dead form of art.

The young actor was engaged at the Odéon, and played at first only small rôles in comedies. Then came a sudden chance to substitute in the rôle of Orestes in *Andromaque*. He played the part with extraordinary fire and passion, taking the public by storm, but disgusting his directors, who considered his performance wild and crazy. Shortly after, the war of '70 broke out, and the actor took part in sterner scenes as flag-lieutenant of the troops of Dordogne (where he had been born, February 27, 1841).

When he returned to Paris the Odéon declined to re-engage him, which so disheartened him that he was about to renounce the theater and seek self-expression as a painter. Luckily he had the idea of calling on his former master, Bressant, at the Théâtre Français. As it happened, just at this time Emile Perrin, administrator of the Comédie, was

powerfully moved by the mood they endeavor planning to revive tragedy, which had languished since the time of Talma, and was having a hard time finding actors with suitable gifts. Bressant introduced Mounet-Sully, and he made his début there in Orestes on July 4, 1872.

As at the Odéon he moved the public powerfully, but most of the dramatic critics made serious reservations in their praises. He was reproached with neglecting the "traditions," with disorder in his playing, with strange inflections of voice, and with the aspect of an Arab or Moorish marauder.

Similar criticisms greeted the parts assumed in the next few years, such as Rodrigue in *The Cid*; Hippolyte in *Phèdre*, and Néron in *Britannicus*. However, he was not only acclaimed by the public, but appreciated by the Comédie, which elected him *sociétaire* January 1, 1874. His career now was one of growing power and fame, gradually winning the critics in such rôles as Jupiter in Molière's *Amphitryon*, Hernani, Ruy Blas, etc.

He attained his apogee in August, 1881, in Sophocles' *Œdipus*, adapted by Jules Lacroix, and played in the ruins of the Roman amphitheater at Orange. Criticism was disarmed. The spectators had a vision of antique beauty, and Mounet-Sully marvelously created in *Œdipus* the man who revolts against divine hate, and is subsequently crushed. The piece was later staged at the Comédie.

This rôle remained his crowning achievement, continuing in his repertoire to the end of his career and received with immense enthusiasm. In 1886 he achieved a new triumph in a version of *Hamlet* adapted by Dumas and Meurice.

It was not the Hamlet of English tradition, but rather that which Goethe defined in *Wilhelm Meister*, and which our romanticists have accepted; a character simpler, clearer, more intelligible to French taste. Herein Mounet-Sully expressed a delicious melancholy and languor.

Mounet-Sully became an officer of the Légion d'Honneur, but failed to obtain the coveted membership in the Académie, "in spite of the dignity of his life and his religious cult of beauty." Like most men of genius he supplemented his native gifts by profound studies.

He had followed at the School of Fine Arts Heuzey's lectures on antique drapery. He knew thoroughly the museums of France, Spain, and Italy. He had devoured all the archeologic documents relating to his rôles, and at times ventured to restore the veritable historic figure of the personages he portrayed, in defiance of the author himself.

This tragedian is an eminent example of that school of actors who are themselves to portray. He was literally "possessed" by his rôle, giving himself up to the emotions of his character, dropping his own personality to be reincarnated in another. For this rea-

son he strongly objected to applause in the course of an act, saying it interrupted the illusion self-created in his own mind. Indeed he often declared that it was for himself that he played, and not for the play-going public merely.

A REVOLUTIONARY MUSICAL GENIUS

PROBABLY to the vast majority of music-lovers and devotees in the United States the name of Alexander Nikolaevich Scriabin is practically unknown—certainly the works of this Russian revolutionary have not yet been made familiar in America. But that they will be brought to attention here with increasing frequency is altogether likely, for the musical world is awakening to an interest in this new music. In his short life of forty-three years, which came to a sudden end in April, 1915, Scriabin produced more than four hundred instrumental pieces, large and small, the whole contribution of his unique genius, as published, being comprised in seventy-four numbered "Works." The REVIEW OF REVIEWS for June, 1915, contained a brief account of his attempt to compose "color music," as exemplified in a daring combination of sounds and colors called "Prometheus—A Poem of Fire."

The October issue of the *Musical Quarterly* (New York) brings "A Survey of the Pianoforte Works of Scriabin," by A. Eaglefield Hull, of Huddersfield, England, which will be found of lively interest by music-lovers in general as well as by votaries of the piano. Professor Hull says at the outset:

No revolution in musical art—perhaps in the whole history of the arts in general—is more striking than that effected by Alexander Scriabin, the great musical genius of the Russia of to-day. His innovations were so many-sided, so far-reaching, and so completely revolutionary that I cannot hope to do any sort of justice to them in a single article. When a musical genius feels himself forced to abolish the major and the minor keys, thereby renouncing modulation (although retaining tonality surely enough), and when he builds up all his harmony on a completely novel system, finally wedding all this new music (or shall we say rather, attempting to do so) to a new kind of "Theosophy" (which grew out of it, so it is said) it will be seen at once that a whole book, and not a single article, is needed to do justice to this composer's creations. For this reason I have chosen to write about the pianoforte works only; and this in the briefest manner possible, as in them the whole of Scriabin's evolution and revolution can be traced in a very remarkable way.

This writer, "with considerable diffidence,"

he says, makes three divisions of Scriabin's total contribution to instrumental music: (1) The Apprenticeship Works (Op. 1 to 18), but still worthy of full respect, since they are all highly finished pieces, "all are clever and original in melody" and "full of fancy, delight and beauty"; (2) The Middle Period (Op. 19 to 49), comprising works that "show the full personality and genius of Scriabin"; and (3) The full consummation of Scriabin's genius (Op. 51 to 74), works that "represent his ripest discoveries along the unexplored tracts which he had entered." In his youth Scriabin was most strongly influenced by the music of the Polish composer Chopin—in the first five Opus numbers "everything is clearly seen through Chopin's mind." But from that point his progress was a steady evolution.

His final achievements, completely revolutionary in character as they appear when faced singly, were all approached through a perfectly natural and logical development. As soon as he reached his own full individuality—his own musical expression freed from the influences of the great men who had gone before, he planted his feet firmly on the road towards his object. This took place about Opus 19 (the Second Sonata), written in 1890 at the age of eighteen. From this point, free of all trammels, he started forth on the quest which called imperatively to him, and he continued steadfastly to the end, never making any concession to the public.

After detailing some of the technical peculiarities of the works as they succeeded one another from the composer's pen, and discussing briefly Scriabin's new system of harmony, Mr. Hull continues:

Scriabin founded no new scale; English and American writers have been led astray on this point. He founded a new *chord*, which his disciples have stupidly christened a "mystery chord." There is no mystery about it. He simply selects the sounds he prefers from Nature's harmonic chord and—builds them up by fourths! The result is a chord of extreme interest and beauty. . . . Scriabin adopts the system whole-heartedly and *all* that it involves—a veritable revolution in music. It includes the abolition of major and minor modes; the dispensing with key-signatures, the complete acceptance of the equal temperament

in tuning (never entirely done before, despite Bach's "48"), and so on. All this and more . . . Scriabin was a king in the world of Absolute Music—Music free from any literal interpretation—Music—a thing of the Spirit—which "takes us to the edge of the Infinite."

. . . He founded all his basses and melodies on the Duodecuple Scale, which is a scale of 12 degrees a semitone apart, all the notes being of equal importance except one, the chosen Tonic. If there be any other outstanding note with him, it is the 7th degree (the augmented 4th, or diminished 5th), which he uses as a sort of Dominant or center of the Octave.

After some further analysis of the later works, in exemplification of this composer's system and harmonic style, the writer says:

To sum up, we have in the pianoforte works of Scriabin a contribution, only equalled (I am not going to say surpassed) by that of Beethoven and

of Chopin. His works are much more truly pianistic than those of either Brahms or Schumann, from which composers Scriabin learnt much. The early works are now accepted classics in all our colleges and academies; the middle works, however, represent Scriabin in the most important and fascinating development of his rich personality. As to his final period, I prefer to pick and choose amongst them. The later sonatas will never become widely popular on account of their great technical difficulties, in addition to the many baffling problems of interpretation . . .

The real value of his contribution to music—and this applies also to the beautiful Symphonies—is the marvelous beauty and spirituality with which his music is always imbued. A man with a single purpose, a thinker of great spiritual power, and a triumphant champion of the absolute music of idealism at the present time when the whole world seems, at first sight, to be engulfed in a great tidal wave of materialism—such a man is of inestimable value.

GERMAN MUSIC AFTER THE WAR

WILL it be possible to maintain a species of boycott in matters of art as well as in matters of commerce after the close of the present hostilities in Europe? That is the interesting question which rises in one's mind on the perusal of some remarks concerning the future of German music recently published in *Die Musik* (Berlin) from the pen of F. A. Giessler.

After expressing joy that the decadent art termed *fin de siècle* has perished from the face of the earth, "its empoisoned vapors dissipated by the storm of war," he observes that when the last gun has fired its last shot the German people must devote its entire attention to the development of physical and moral vigor in the arts of peace, eliminating everything which negates the spirit of heroism, and banishing all creations that are effeminate in character.

We shall return to classic music like that of Bach, Mozart, Beethoven, or Schubert; but above all, we shall return to Richard Wagner, the supreme heroic composer.

Formerly he was characterized as a futurist; let him retain that name, for it is he who must dominate our music of the future; it is he who has familiarized us with the heroes of our ancient Germania. Let us be grateful to him for having shown us the right road. It is he, moreover, who is most detested in France, because he is considered there the most German of our musicians.

Wherever we are our music exerts its enchantment. In the invaded cities of France and Belgium the people have crowded to our concerts. Our enemies dream of surrounding us with a Chinese Wall, we the same. Certainly we can

get along without their art, just as they can get along without ours; but why should one voluntarily impoverish himself?

Let us be frank! Before the war we were the servile admirers of foreign art; Saint-Saëns, Puccini, Debussy were quite spoiled by us, even though their music was not in accord with our sentiments. German music had ceased to exist for us; an artist was acclaimed when he sang some foreign work; but a German *Lied* was heard with indifference. But now singers will have to prove to us that they are familiar with our German repertory; otherwise they may stay at home. We shall no longer need to blush at the triumphal progress of an Yvette Guilbert!

The critic says, further, that German authors must choose German subjects, abandoning operettas with sensual books, and rehabilitating the native *Singspiel* (musical comedy). Moreover, they must liberate themselves from the English and American melodies which have been recently influencing songs, marches, and operettas. He remarks that these non-German *motifs* were as fashionable as English tailors and American shoemakers. He even inquires why the Germans should not have what he terms "musical protectionism."

Without going so far as certain chauvinists who would even change musical terms, such as *andante*, *allegro*, etc., under the pretext that they are of Italian origin, we can suppress the French titles which are now seen at the head of each piece of music. And then, above all, let us no more make a commercial affair of music, according to the practise of certain impresarios; let us seek talent and not money. . . . Then we shall soon regain the musical domination of the world.

THE NEW BOOKS

LITERATURE AND ART

ROMAIN ROLLAND brings us the living Handel¹ in an intimate record of his life and the masterly critique of his works, translated by A. Eaglefield Hall. His vivid characterization of Handel is as remarkable a bit of literary portraiture as the dissection of Handel's operas, instrumental works, oratorios, and clavier pieces is as musical criticism. Rolland emphasizes the immense virtuosity and virility of the composer, and compares his tragic art to the tragic art of Greece. There are four musical illustrations, four pictures, and an index.

"Defoe: How to Know Him,"² by Prof. William P. Trent, presents a fascinating study of the life and writings of the man who has become identified in the passage of time with a solitary figure of his great literary output, "Robinson Crusoe." The author confesses his record of Defoe's life and work to be defective, on account of his extraordinary and tangled career, and because of his enormous "copiousness and versatility." It is not generally known that Defoe was in his day a champion of women's education, and their fair treatment and the development of their individuality. In his "Essay on Projects," published in 1697, he broached a plan for "An Academy for Women." The various aspects of Defoe will attract all classes of readers. He was the most copious writer of his day, and reflected his age with marvelous accuracy; he was journalist, politician, economist, satirist, historian, moralist, and novelist.

"Saints' Legends,"³ by Gordon Hall Gerould, gives an account of the part that saints' legends have played in English literature. The identical human psychology that is evidenced in the popular worship of saints and heroes placed the type permanently in our literature, flooding the writings of certain periods with a passionate warmth that gave solace and inspiration, and resolved into moral force. Professor Gerould's book is unique, scholarly, and of vivid interest to all students of literature, churchmen, and those who appreciate sidelights on the historical perspective of the English-speaking race. It is published in the "Types of English Literature Series," edited by William Allan Neilson, of Harvard.

The Italian literary conquest of England is skilfully portrayed in a volume by Mary Augusta Scott, "Elizabethan Translations from the Italian,"⁴ published in the Vassar Semi-Centennial Series. This book will be exceedingly useful to students of literature, to Shakespearean scholars, and to all who are interested in the resplendent Elizabethan period of English thought—"the spa-

cious times of great Elizabeth." Of all the foreign influences that filtered into this fresh flowering of English genius, the author finds the Italian the strongest and the most far-reaching. Miss Scott is professor of English and literature at Smith College. The most excellent divisions of the material and the index of titles and translators will greatly assist the student.

The special number of the *International Studio*, "Shakespeare in Pictorial Art,"⁵ is one of the most gratifying volumes lovers of Shakespeare can possess. Upwards of seventy-five artists are represented in this book, and private collections and public galleries have been ransacked for rare prints and engravings. John S. Sargent's magnificent portrait of Ellen Terry as Lady Macbeth is reproduced in color, and Corot, Delacroix, Rossetti, Hoppner, Romney, William Blake, and Edwin Abbey are among the artists whose work is reproduced. The excellent text is the work of Malcolm C. Salaman, edited by Charles Holme.

A critical study of Henry David Thoreau⁶ gives us the philosophical side of the character of the great nature-lover, his genius for the specific, the definiteness of personality which the author, Mark Van Doren, finds most significant to culture. A remarkable, well-written book, a treasure for students, and of fresh and universal interest to the general reader.

There was a period in the development of Russian civilization when all the edifices were built of wood and when types of architecture and certain social adjustments of life were regulated by the necessary limitations of building materials. Rosa Newmarch, in her historical survey of the progress of Russian art,⁷ devotes space to so-called "wooden Russia," and then proceeds to modern architecture, decoration and iconography, illumination and engraving, official art, painting, sacred art, sculpture, and the "new art." The strikingly beautiful illustrations render this book doubly attractive. An excellent gift-book for anyone interested in matters appertaining to Russia.

"Pierre Nozière,"⁸ by Anatole France, translated by J. Lewis May, and edited by Frederick Chapman, consists of three books, "Childhood," "Notes Written by Pierre Nozière in the Margin of His Big Plutarch," and "Pierre Nozière's Travels in France." The "travels" are especially pleasing. They conduct the reader to "Saint-Valéry-sur-Somme, to Notre Dame de Liesse, Brittany, to Pierrefonds," and "The Little Town" (Vernon).

¹ Handel. By Romain Rolland. Holt. 211 pp. \$1.50.
² Defoe: How to Know Him. By William P. Trent. Bobbs-Merrill. 329 pp. \$1.25.

³ Saints' Legends. By Gordon Hall Gerould. Houghton, Mifflin. 393 pp. \$1.50.

⁴ Elizabethan Translations from the Italian. By Mary Augusta Scott. Houghton, Mifflin. 558 pp. \$1.75.

⁵ Shakespeare in Pictorial Art. John Lane. Illustrated, 183 pp. \$2.50.

⁶ Henry David Thoreau. By Mark Van Doren. Houghton, Mifflin. 138 pp. \$1.25.

⁷ The Russian Art. By Rosa Newmarch. Dutton. 293 pp. \$2.

⁸ Pierre Nozière. By Anatole France. John Lane. 283 pp. \$1.75.

IRELAND IN LETTERS AND DRAMA

FOR those who like to wander in the shadow-land of Celtic folklore, that background of Irish literature and also of political turbulence, there is Lady Gregory's book, "Visions and Beliefs in the West of Ireland,"¹ a volume patiently gathered from the lips of the peasants and written down with insight and the self-effacement of the true artist.

From the Irish dramatist and poet, Padraic Colum, we have a volume of plays.² The striking sentence Mr. Weygandt has written of Mr. Colum, in "Irish Plays and Playwrights," describes the nature of the material of these plays. "Subtleties and complexities, decadent things are not for him, but simplicities, primordial things, the love of wandering, and what is only less old, the love of land; and love of woman. These three things, and youth, and little else concern him." "The Fiddler's House," produced under the title "Broken Soil," at the Abbey Theater, has for its motive the love of land. "Thomas Muskerri" is the story of an Irishman who wants a place to be quiet in, where the nagging tongues of his relatives cannot reach him, a story of the misery of a life that lies between two freedoms and fails of either. "The Land," the third play in this volume, depicts a struggle between wanderlust and love of the land. A woman's love casts the balance on the side of the land.

For the last decade the study of Irish literature has enormously increased, owing to the Irish literary renaissance and to certain political agitations which have focused interest upon Ireland. A certain sorrowful interest will attach itself to the work of the late Thomas MacDonagh, "Literature in Ireland,"³ because of his execution as one of the leaders of the *Sinn Féin* revolt. The author held certain beliefs about Irish literature, namely, that Anglo-Irish literature could come only when English had become the lan-

guage of the Irish people mainly of Gaelic stock, and that in Ireland the English tongue has a distinct and separate individuality of its own, for the most part due to the rhythms of Irish phrasing. Selections are freely given to illustrate his beliefs, and he discusses the works of young Irish writers, among others W. B. Yeats, Padraic Colum, Joseph Plunkett, P. H. Pearse, Dora Sigerson, and the Hon. Emily Lawless. The whole constitutes a brilliant and fearless survey of Anglo-Irish literature, to the end of acquainting us with its inner beauties and peculiar qualities.

Lady Gregory's play for children in Kiltartan, "The Golden Apple,"⁴ illustrates MacDonagh's statements about the peculiar individuality of the English tongue as used by the Irish. Although, when his book was written, he had not thought that Lady Gregory's work could be definitely placed in the consideration of modern Irish literature, still the reader will find that the rhythms he mentions and the chant-like, unaccentuated fall of words that makes for music in Irish prose are fairly abundant in this play. The story relates the search of the son of the king of Ireland for the Apple of Healing. The book is attractively bound, and has full-page illustrations in color by Margaret Gregory.

"Duty, and Other Irish Comedies,"⁵ by Seumas O'Brien, presents five sprightly Irish plays that give us types of Irishmen that are very similar to types of American-born Irish; not the man who is overborne by the past, but the merry, witty, hilarious, inconsistent Irishman who is flesh and blood. "Duty" was performed by the Irish Players during their tour in 1914. It is a delightful tale of the enforcement of the Sunday-closing liquor law in a country public-house. These plays are remarkably good as reading plays.

THE CHRISTIAN RELIGION

MR. GEORGE MOORE'S story of the life of Christ, "The Brook Kerith,"⁶ a work of unquestioned power and great imagination, builds, with all the artifice of superb literary craftsmanship, a plausible narrative of the life of Jesus of Nazareth based upon the legend that Jesus did not die on the cross. According to "The Brook Kerith" he was resuscitated by Joseph of Arimathea, who found him alive in the sepulchre, and lay hidden in his house until the healing of his wounds made it possible for him to return to the Essene monastery, where his early years had been spent, and resume his humble occupation as shepherd of the

flocks of sheep that grazed upon the hills overlooking the Jordan. The characterization of the Essene monks, of Jesus' disciples, the cunning of the colloquial interpretation of sacred events, the convincing picture of life in Jerusalem, and the masterly portrait of Paul from a literary point of view will atone for Moore's Jesus of Nazareth.

Dr. R. Warren Conant's story of the life of Jesus of Nazareth, "The Virility of Christ,"⁷ interprets the practical values of Christ teachings with the end in view of attracting the average man back into the church and active Christian life. He reveals Jesus as the exponent of the strenuous life, who upheld that the primary purpose of man's creation was the evolution of initiative, judgment, and power, the Super-Brother of the practical, everyday striving man of high ideals. He makes it clear that Jesus understood the tragic struggle for sheer existence and confined his hu-

¹ Visions and Beliefs in the West of Ireland. By Lady Gregory. Putnam's. \$3.

² Three Plays. By Padraic Colum. Little, Brown Co. \$1.25.

³ Literature in Ireland. By Thomas MacDonagh. Stokes. 248 pp. \$2.75.

⁴ The Golden Apple. By Lady Gregory. Putnam's. 117 pp. \$1.25.

⁵ Duty and Other Irish Comedies. By Seumas O'Brien. Little, Brown. 134 pp. \$1.25.

⁶ The Brook Kerith. By George Moore. Macmillan. 486 pp. \$1.50.

⁷ The Virility of Christ. By Dr. R. Warren Conant, Chicago. 350 pp.

mility largely to the realm of spirit. Whether you agree or disagree with Dr. Conant, his book presents a helpful and stimulating re-statement of Christian doctrine. Forty short chapters give hints for sermons and Bible lessons for the use of students, teachers, and preachers. These are suggestive and illustrative.

"Essays on the Catholic Life"¹ present in a vigorous manner many of the leading phases of Catholic thought. "The Office and Function of Poetry," "What Is Criticism," and "The Irish Dramatic Movement" are excellently conceived and well written. Other subjects are, as the author states, of vital concern to Catholics.

POETRY OF THE DAY

"THE Golden Book of Sonnets,"² selected by William Robertson, will tempt every buyer of poetry. It contains two hundred and fifty sonnets, beginning with Sir Thomas Wyatt and continuing down to the present day, to Henry Newboldt, St. John Adcock, and the Hon. Maurice Baring. While many readers will undoubtedly miss some favorite lines, this collection is the best sonnet anthology in print. The volume is beautifully made, with wide margins, very white paper, decorations and excellent typographical proportions. The frontispiece is a drawing in pen and ink by Willie Pogany.

"Tragedies,"³ by Arthur Symons, contains a Cornish tragedy in three acts in verse, entitled "The Harvesters," and two one-act plays, "The Death of Agrippina" and "Cleopatra in Judea." The first is an elemental thing of light and shadow and the brooding, mysterious forces of nature, the tragedy of a Cornish "Mary" who kills the man who refuses to father his own child. The second etches the figure of Agrippina against the sinister background of the paranoiac psychology of Nero; and the third—and best of the three—shows us the matching of wits between King Herod of Judea and Cleopatra. It is conceived in Symons' true vein of poesy, which is neither of earth nor of heaven, but of a floating intermediary plane where delicate, overlapping images and sounds, subtle, half-barbaric, create definite illusion in the mind.

Henry Newboldt's collected poems⁴ may be had in a neat pocket volume bound in blue cloth. His patriotic verses have recently come into great prominence, and his stirring ballads of the sea have become the songs of the British Navy. Kipling never wrote a better ballad than "Drake's Drum," which was sung between the acts of the revival of the play "Drake," by Sir Beerbohm Tree, in September, 1914. The second stanza runs as follows:

Drake he was a Devon man, and ruled the
Devon seas,
(Capten, art tha sleepin' there below?),
Rovin' tho his death fell, he went wi' heart at
ease,
And dreamin' arl the time o' Plymouth Hoe.
"Take my drum to England, hang et by the shore,
Strike et when your powder's runnin' low;

If the Dons sight Devon, I'll quit the port of
Heaven
An' drum them up the Channel as we drummed
them long ago."

"Songs and Ballads from Over the Sea"⁵ is a compilation, by E. A. Helps, of the poems of the British colonial possessions, inspired by patriotic sentiment, that attempts to bring the colonies into a better understanding and closer touch. The fields covered are those of patriotic, legendary, and historical verse, descriptive lyrics, ballads, and poems of the imagination. Readers may be fairly familiar with much of the Canadian poetry in this volume, but the poetry culled from Australian sources, from New Zealand and South Africa will compensate with its freshness, virility and originality of theme. It is a splendid collection that everyone will like to own.

"The Golden Threshold,"⁶ a second volume of the poems of the East Indian poetess Sarojini Naidu, are published with an introduction by Arthur Symons. The contents are divided into three sections: Folk Songs, Songs for Music, and Poems. The song, "Alabaster," gives the poet's own description of her art:

"Like this alabaster box whose art
Is frail as cassia-flower, is my heart
Carven with delicate dreams and wrought
With many a subtle and exquisite thought.

Therein I treasure the spice and scent
Of rich and passionate memories blent
Like odors of cinnamon, sandal and clove,
Of song and sorrow, life and love."

Selections from the author's prose, which is even more musical and distinguished than her poesy, are given in the preface, also a biographical sketch of her unusual career. The frontispiece is a pencil portrait of Sarojini Naidu by J. B. Yeats.

The collected poems⁷ of Arthur Peterson, published in a single volume, include "The Divan and Songs of New Sweden," "Penrhyn's Pilgrimage," "Sea Grasses," and a new series, "Waifs and The Recluse."

The intangible wonder that excites our reverence for the dawning of a new and partly inexplicable intelligence is caught in nets of thistle-

¹ Essays on the Catholic Life. By Thomas O'Hagan. John Murphy Pub. Co. 166 pp. 75 cents.

² The Golden Book of Sonnets. Selected by William Robertson. J. B. Lippincott Company. 260 pp. \$1.25.

³ Tragedies. By Arthur Symons. John Lane. 151 pp. \$1.50.

⁴ Henry Newboldt's Collected Poems. Thomas Nelson and Sons. 266 pp. 50 cents.

⁵ Songs and Ballads from Over the Sea. Compiled by E. A. Helps. Dutton. 359 pp. \$1.25.

⁶ The Golden Threshold. By Sarojini Naidu. John Lane. 98 pp. \$1.

⁷ Collected Poems. Arthur Peterson. Putnam's. 320 pp. \$1.25.

down poetry by Katherine Howard in "The Little God."¹ This volume of child verse for grown-ups, dedicated to the Poetry Society of America, unfolds a series of quaint sayings of childhood, strung like pearls on the silver strings of meters as untrammelled as are vagrant breezes. They reflect the curious prescience so often observed in very young children, the shadowing forth of the future, the imperious and prophetic gesture of the oversoul. "Grandmere," "Midnight," "Strange Faces," and "Butterflies" are among the best of the collection. The book is illustrated by the author with whimsical pen-and-ink sketches, drawings of flowers, deftly given elfin faces and personality by the exaggeration of their natural markings that suggest human likeness.

Mrs. Laura F. Gilbert has translated into English the "Rime Nuove,"² of Giosue Carducci, retaining the original meters so far as possible. The Italian poet Carducci was a son of the Tuscan physician and Manzonian, Michele Carducci. He attained honor and fame, and became known as one of the poets of "Italia Irredenta." In 1906, he received the Nobel prize for literature. Upon the occasion of his death, in 1907, Chiarini wrote: "After the death of the great king, after that of Garibaldi, after the death of the good king, no other national misfortune has touched so deeply the heart of Italy." It is a matter of opinion whether poetry can be translated successfully into another language than that of its inception. Mrs. Gilbert has caught as much of the music of Carducci in her translations as it may be possible to capture in English. "Vignette," "Hellenic Springtimes," and "The Two Titans" are admirable.

It is pleasant to find a new edition of Bryant's translation of Homer's "Iliad,"³ compact in one volume, among the fall books. It is well made and printed with clear type set in appropriate margins. Bryant's familiar preface and the famous Flaxman illustrations accompany the text.

"The Book of Winifred Maynard"⁴ presents a collection of fervent poems rich in records of personal experience, from the pen of a woman now dead, who masks her identity under the name of Maynard. The poems cover a period of thirteen years in her life (from seventeen to thirty), and they are arranged in the order of their composition. Those who appreciate poetry will recognize in these poems the voice of an authentic singer.

The Caedmon Poems⁵ have been translated into English prose by Charles W. Kennedy as a companion volume to his translation of the poems of Cynewulf, which appeared in 1910. The book includes an introduction and facsimiles of the illustrations in the Junius MS.

"Mothers and Men,"⁶ by Harold Trowbridge Pulsifer, is the latest green-clad volume of the New Poetry Series. The poems of the first section are exceptionally beautiful tributes to motherhood. The poem, "The Conquest of the Air," a superb piece of versification, was awarded the Lloyd McKim Garrison prize by Harvard College.

If Heinrich Heine⁷ had been writing of the North Sea to-day, he would probably not have produced the melodious lyrics of the first and second cycles of poems of the North Sea published in 1825 and 1827. These cycles have been translated by Howard Mumford Jones, with particular attention to Heine's rhythmic scheme and accentual system. Mr. Jones has written a most excellent preface, and wisely printed the German text on pages facing the English version, which makes the book of great value to students.

"Poems of the Great War,"⁸ by J. W. Cunliffe, is a symposium of the notable poems written since 1914, that are related to the war. Alfred Noyes, John Masefield, Rupert Brooke, Lincoln Colcord, Hermann Hagedorn, Owen Seaman, Vachel Lindsay, and Rabindranath Tagore are among the authors represented in the anthology.

There is originality and peculiar charm in "Songs of the Soil,"⁹ a third offering of verse from the young negro poet, Fenton Johnson. Many of the poems are in negro dialect, and they are in several instances equal to Paul Laurence Dunbar's dialect songs. They have an eerie note, a curious racial differentiation, a touch of infinite mournfulness, and their inspiration is the old vanishing life of plantation and levee. The "spiritual" "The Lonely Mother" is sheer wailing music. "De Ol' Sojer" endeavors to establish the right of the black man to call the United States "his country" since he has been willing to establish that right in blood upon our battlefields. Mr. Johnson's previous books are: "Visions of the Dusk" and "A Little Dreaming."

"Roads,"¹⁰ by Grace Fallow Norton, will hardly recall the singer of "Little Grey Songs of St. Joseph's." There is a deeper, richer feeling for life and more turbulent emotion, together with great variety, in this latest volume. If one feels the lyrical values are not as sure, as delicate, of such telling repressed beauty as in previous collections, it may well be that this is a fault of transition from one phase of poetry to another. The quiet lyrics are the best of this collection; the poems of war least pleasing; the whole revealing spontaneity and earnestness and the sense of expansion of mind and spirit. "The Cup of Color," "Blue," and "Hyacinth and Gold" reveal the author's most felicitous forms of expression.

¹ *The Little God*. By Katherine Howard. Sherman, French. \$1.50.

² *The Rime Nuove of Giosue Carducci*. Translated by Laura F. Gilbert. Richard C. Badger. 186 pp. \$1.25.

³ *The Iliad of Homer*. Translated by William Cullen Bryant. Houghton, Mifflin. 355 pp. \$1.50.

⁴ *The Book of Winifred Maynard*. Putnam's. 82 pp. \$1.

⁵ *The Caedmon Poems*. By Charles W. Kennedy. Dutton. 258 pp. \$2.25.

⁶ *Mothers and Men*. By Harold T. Pulsifer. Houghton, Mifflin. 39 pp. 75 cents.

⁷ *Heine's Poems. The North Sea*. Translated by Howard M. Jones. Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Co. 129 pp. \$1.

⁸ *Poems of the Great War*. Collected by J. W. Cunliffe. Macmillan. \$1.50.

⁹ *Songs of the Soil*. By Fenton Johnson. Published by the author, 35 West 131st Street, New York.

¹⁰ *Roads*. By Grace Fallow Norton. Houghton, Mifflin. 86 pp. 75 cents.

IMPORTANT BIOGRAPHIES

Abraham Lincoln. By Lord Charnwood. Holt. 479 pp. \$1.75.

In the mass of literature that has been gradually gathered about the personality of Lincoln, comparatively few volumes have been contributed by authors who were not of American birth or antecedents. One of these exceptional books has just come from the press. The work of a British nobleman, this book attempts to picture Lincoln as a world statesman. Naturally the author is mainly concerned with the public phases of Lincoln's career, and in his account of his hero's early life he is wholly dependent on earlier biographers. For American readers, the chief interest of the book, perhaps, lies in what it reveals of a modern Englishman's attitude towards the problems of statesmanship to which the Great Emancipator was compelled to address himself during the four troublous years of his presidency—one of the most serious of those problems being our relations with Great Britain.

How We Elected Lincoln. By Abram J. Dittenhoefer. Harper & Bros. 95 pp. 50 cents.

Personal recollections by a campaigner for Lincoln in 1860 and a Lincoln Elector in 1864. In this campaign year it was interesting to read of the political experiences and methods of Civil War days. Among other things brought out in these reminiscences is the fact that the name "Republican," as applied to the dominant national party in 1864, was superseded by "Union."

Reminiscences of a War-Time Statesman and Diplomat 1830-1915. By Frederick W. Seward. Putnam's. 489 pp. Ill. \$3.50.

The late Frederick W. Seward, the son of Lincoln's Secretary of State, was himself Assistant Secretary of State during the administrations of Lincoln, Johnson, and Hayes. In his "Life and Letters of William H. Seward," the son narrated certain recollections of his official life. In the present volume he gives many more, including an account of his part in warning Lincoln of the plot to assassinate him in Baltimore, in 1861. In defending his father on the April night in 1865 when Lincoln was assassinated, Mr. Seward was severely wounded. In later years he had a part in the purchase of Alaska and in the negotiations for Pago-Pago Harbor, Samoa. His acquaintance with public men during the Civil War period was extensive.

The Life of John A. Rawlins. By James Harrison Wilson. Neale Pub. Co. 514 pp. \$3.

General Wilson, who himself had an important part as one of Grant's generals in the Civil War, and many years later as a commander in the Spanish-American war, and as second in command of the United States forces in the Boxer Rebellion in China, has written the life of the man who was more closely associated than any other with the military successes of General Grant. John A. Rawlins, a Galena lawyer, at the outbreak of the Civil War, without military training or experience, became Assistant Adjutant-General, Chief of Staff, and in Grant's first term as President, Secretary of War. Although he

never commanded troops in the field, Rawlins was, in General Wilson's estimation, "the most remarkable man I met during the Civil War." In this volume General Wilson shows how this confidential staff-officer, who so completely merged his individuality in that of his chief, rendered services to the country of unusual value. In General Wilson's opinion, "It may be doubted if it was the lot of any man, who did not actually reach the command of an army or become a member of the cabinet to render the country greater or more valuable services."

McClellan: A Vindication of the Military Career of General George B. McClellan. By James Havelock Campbell. Neale Pub. Co. 458 pp. \$3.

This is a defense of McClellan as a commander, offered frankly as "a lawyer's brief." The author declares that more has been written about McClellan's military career than about any other within the realm of war except the campaigns of Napoleon. General Lee called McClellan the ablest Northern general of the Civil War, and the German General von Moltke said that the war would have ended two years earlier than it did if McClellan had been properly supported by the Government at Washington. Mr. Campbell amplifies certain facts in the record which he thinks have been either ignored or insufficiently appreciated in the past.

From the Deep Woods to Civilization. By Charles A. Eastman (Ohiyesa). Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 206 pp. Ill. \$2.

Chapters in the autobiography of the Sioux Indian, Charles A. Eastman, who through his lectures and writings has for many years served as an interpreter of his race to the whites. In an earlier volume, entitled "Indian Boyhood," Mr. Eastman pictured the wilderness life of his childhood and youth. In the present volume he describes the transition period, his college life, and later career. After graduation from Dartmouth College, Mr. Eastman studied medicine and became government physician at the Pine Ridge Reservation, South Dakota. Later he married Miss Elaine Goodale, the poet.

Joseph Fels: His Life-Work. By Mary Fels. B. W. Huebsch. 271 pp. \$1.

The story of the life of Joseph Fels, dreamer, Single-Taxer, and plain American business man, is a valuable document in the history of our times. He was an American manufacturer, who worked his way up to great wealth from an humble start as a poor German-Jewish boy in Halifax County, Virginia. Then he saw that money was only a trust; that a man had no right to it who did not use it to further the equalization of economic conditions. He experimented with small-farm colonies, vacant-land cultivation, educational and philanthropic enterprises in England and America, and finally devoted himself to the Single Tax. His personal career was inspiring. He lived his own creeds, and in public matters he believed that the same kind of talent that carried private enterprise to success

could be successfully applied to the business of government. He believed in equal suffrage, for his creed had but one article: "Freedom and equal opportunity for all." To his patient efforts was due a large measure of the alleviation of the condition of the Jews in Russia. He struck fearlessly throughout his activities at the reorganization of the physical conditions of life, believing that physical environment largely shaped the individual man. His fortune was freely spent in the furthering of his schemes for the amelioration of the common lot of humanity.

The Chevalier de Boufflers. By Nesta H. Webster. E. P. Dutton & Co. 441 pp. Ill. \$4.

This is an account of a famous romance of the French Revolution—that of the Chevalier de Boufflers and the Comtesse de Sabran.

William Oughtred, a Great Seventeenth-Century Teacher of Mathematics. By Florian Cajori, Ph.D. Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Co. 100 pp. \$1.

A sketch of the life and influence of a great mathematician, who was by profession not a teacher of mathematics but a minister of the gospel. He was one of the earliest of the group of distinguished British scholars who have followed science as amateurs.

The Life of Heinrich Conried. By Montrose J. Moses. Thomas Y. Crowell Co. 367 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

In this account of the career of the former director of the Metropolitan Opera House in New York, Mr. Moses naturally and properly traces the remarkable work done by Mr. Conried as director of the Irving Place Theater in New York. There are chapters devoted to the criticisms that were directed against Conried during his reign at the Metropolitan and Conried's connection with the National Art Theater movement.

The Penny Piper of Saranac. By Stephen Chalmers. Houghton, Mifflin. 65 pp. 75 cents.

The public must remain in Mr. Stephen Chal-

mers' debt for "The Penny Piper of Saranac," an intimate sketch of the life of Robert Louis Stevenson at Saranac Lake during the winter of 1887-88. The thin, tall man who lived at the Baker cottage and spent much of his time skating and "tootling on a penny whistle" is shown to us behaving like any other normal human being who is ill and a bit shy. He was even persuaded to speak at a church social once during the winter, but unfortunately for posterity the speech was not recorded. Mr. Chalmers records the friendship between Stevenson and Dr. Trudeau, and tells of the writer's reaction after an hour spent in Trudeau's laboratory. The illustrations include a picture of the Baker cottage, which shows the sculptor, Gutzon Borglum, standing beside his memorial to Stevenson, a bronze portrait tablet placed in the wall of the cottage.

A Last Memory of Robert Louis Stevenson. By Charlotte Eaton. Thomas Y. Crowell Co. 62 pp. 50 cents.

The author of this chapter of reminiscences is the wife of an artist, Wyatt Eaton, who was an early friend of Stevenson in their student days abroad. The time of this "Last Memory" is a farewell visit paid by Stevenson to Eaton just before leaving the United States in the vain search for health.

A Little Book of Friends. By Harriet Prescott Spofford. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 184 pp. \$1.25.

Sketches of the members of a little group of gifted New England women of whom Mrs. Spofford herself was one. Among the other members of the group were Celia Thaxter, Gail Hamilton, Mary Booth, Ann Whitney, Jane Andrews, Louise Chandler Moulton, Sarah Orne Jewett, Annie Fields, and Louisa Parsons Hopkins. Mrs. Spofford was on terms of intimate friendship with all these distinguished women.

In Slums and Society. By James Adderley. E. P. Dutton & Co. 302 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

Reminiscences and anecdotes of humorous interest by the Canon of Birmingham.

HISTORY

American Debate. By Marion Mills Miller. Putnam's. 2 vols., 467, 417 pp. \$4.

This is a political history of the United States, as reflected in debates on important issues. The book is useful as a work of reference, including as it does not only an historical account of the chief subjects of discussion in the United States, down to the beginning of the Civil War, but also abundant references to the Congressional records and compilations of debates of individual speakers, as well as many examples of American eloquence and short biographical sketches of statesmen. The second volume of the series is devoted to the land and slavery questions, 1607-1860. The controversies covered by this volume are economic as well as political. The author's method has resulted in bringing to light and arranging in convenient form a great deal of im-

portant material that might otherwise have remained buried in Government documents.

The Story of the United States. By Marie Louise Herdman. Stokes. 496 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

A history of the United States, written for children, and following the plan of earlier "story histories" by the same author. This volume is unlike the numerous school histories of the United States, in that it takes the form of a continuous narrative, emphasizing picturesque and dramatic incidents. Like most American histories, it gives too large a proportion of its space to the colonial period; but perhaps this is not surprising, since the material of that period is abundant and attractive as compared with the more commonplace developments of modern times.

Campaigns and Battles of the Army of Northern Virginia. By George Wise. The Neale Publishing Co. 432 pp. Ill. \$3.

A Confederate veteran's account of his army experiences, from April, 1861, to the surrender of Lee's army in April, 1865. The author was an engineer in the Army of Northern Virginia, and his work won high praise from General Lee and other officers.

The White Sulphur Springs. By William Alexander MacCorkle, LL.D. The Neale Pub. Co. 410 pp. Ill. \$5.

There is no American resort whose name has figured so prominently for so long a time in our literature as the White Sulphur Springs of West Virginia. The wonder is that the history of these famous springs was not written long ago. This task has now been completed by former Governor William A. MacCorkle, of West Virginia. Although a distinctively Southern institution, the White Sulphur now attracts, as it did 150 years ago, great numbers of Americans from both sides of Mason and Dixon's line. Governor MacCorkle sets forth in this illustrated volume the tradi-

tions and history of the Springs, at the same time describing the distinctive social life of the resort, both past and present.

The Eighteenth Century in France. By Casimir Stryiński. Putnam's. 345 pp. \$2.50.

This work, by an eminent Polish historian, was "crowned" by the Institute of France. The period covered begins with the accession of Louis XV in 1715 and ends with the meeting of the States-General in 1789.

The French Revolution. By Louis Madelin. Putnam's. 662 pp. \$2.50.

After all that has been written about the French Revolution within recent years, the French historian, Madelin, does not attempt in this volume of six hundred pages to do more than to define "as a temporary measure" the ground that has already been explored. His qualifications for such a task are unquestioned. Louis Madelin is one of the leading French historians of our time. His work, like that of Stryiński, has been "crowned" by the French Academy.

BOOKS OF TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION

Tramping Through Mexico, Guatemala and Honduras. By Harry A. Franck. Century. 378 pp. Ill. \$2.

Several years ago Mr. Franck laid out for himself a comprehensive program of travel through Latin-American countries. Disdaining the usual steamship route to South America, he started from Laredo, Texas, on an overland journey afoot that was planned to end only at the southern extremity of the South American continent. His account of five months on the Canal Zone has already been published. The present volume describes his experiences and observations in Mexico and Central America. There are many published descriptions of Mexican natural scenery, but very few books by American travelers that reveal any intimate knowledge of the common people. Throughout his journey Mr. Franck associated with all ranks of the population, from peon to landed proprietor. He came to know the Mexican in city and country, by talking with him at his fireside, in the fields, and on the highways. Mr. Franck's forthcoming volume on South America will complete the record of four unbroken years of Latin-American travel.

Midsummer Motoring in Europe. By De Courcy W. Thom. Putnam's. 322 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

An account of four thousand miles of travel through Belgium, Normandy, Brittany, Touraine, Würtemberg and Bavaria, including a description of the Passion Play at Oberammergau.

The Soul of the Russian. By Marjorie Lethbridge and Alan Lethbridge. John Lane. 238 pp. \$1.25.

Mr. and Mrs. Lethbridge have studied Russia and the Russians, both in peace and war. The purpose of this little book is to make English readers better acquainted with their Slavic allies. Many of the sketches that make up the volume have already appeared in English periodicals. Several places made prominent by the war are described in detail.

An Irishwoman in China. By Mrs. De Burgh Daly. Stokes. 295 pp. Ill. \$3.50.

Mrs. Daly spent twenty years in China, and while she makes no pretensions to expert knowledge of the country she is able to write an entertaining narrative of the daily life of European residents there. The volume is illustrated from photographs and Chinese drawings.

Hawaii: Scenes and Impressions. By Katharine Fullerton Gerould. Scribner's. 181 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

A month's experiences and observations, charmingly described and illustrated from photographs.

Rural Sanitation in the Tropics. By Malcolm Watson. Dutton. 320 pp. Ill. \$4.25.

More than half of this volume is devoted to Panama and the sanitation work of the United States officials there. The author, who is a leading British authority, says of the work of Colonel Gorgas: "Although he went to construct a canal, he has also conducted a school of applied sanitation whose lesson will benefit the world—I say with confidence—for all time."

A BUSINESS MAN'S LIBRARY

Economics of World Trade. By O. P. Austin. Business Training Corporation. 141 pp. Ill.

This little book forms the first "unit" of a course in foreign trade, to be published by the Business Training Corporation, of New York City. The first forty pages of the volume are devoted to an introduction of this course, written by Mr. Edward Ewing Pratt, Chief of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce in the United States Department of Commerce. The discussion of the economics of world trade by one of the foremost trade statisticians of the country, Mr. O. P. Austin, outlines the underlying principles of commerce, placing special emphasis on American trade. Later volumes in the series will proceed to deal with the details of trade policies and methods.

Principles of Commerce. By Harry Gunnison Brown. Macmillan. 207 pp. \$1.75.

This volume really comprises three separate treatises on (1) "The Exchange Mechanism of Commerce"; (2) "The Economic Advantages of Commerce"; (3) "The Transportation Costs of Commerce." The purpose of the author was to write a book that may be found useful in general courses of commerce, in courses dealing with foreign and domestic exchange, or in courses dealing with trade and trade restrictions, and the relation of transportation rates to trade.

Exporting to Latin America. By Ernst B. Filsinger. D. Appleton & Co. 565 pp. \$3.

This volume, designed as a handbook for merchants, manufacturers, and exporters, was compiled by the former president of the Latin-American Foreign Trade Association. Mr. Filsinger has given much time to the study and observation of the conditions of which he writes, and he has many suggestions to offer, which, if not conclusive, are at least worthy of serious attention from American business men. His book makes it clear that such questions as those relating to credit, adaptation to local taste, and conformation to local business methods need to be considered as

carefully as questions of price. His book throughout is written from the business man's standpoint.

Retail Selling. By James W. Fisk. Harper's. 335 pp. \$1.

Mr. Fisk is a man of long experience in retail salesmanship. The principles and illustrations developed in his book are all out of actual present-day trade practise. Under the head of "Market and Methods," Mr. Fisk discusses the analysis of the selling field, the analysis of the competition, the determination of sales policies, the organization of the selling force, store and stock arrangement, and "getting people into the store." The remainder of the book is devoted to personal salesmanship and the training and supervision of the selling force. This is the first volume to appear in a "Retail Business Series."

Fundamentals of Salesmanship. By Norris A. Brisco, M. A. D. Appleton & Co. 322 pp. \$1.50.

This book was written by the head of the department of Political Economy and the School of Commerce of the Iowa State University. It treats of salesmanship in relation to the salesperson, and to the manager. There are chapters on "Human Nature," "Health," "Appearance," "Character," "Tact," "Honesty," and many other matters of direct personal interest to people who sell goods, and in the section devoted to the manager, suggestions are offered regarding personal relations with the sales force, the hiring of employees, welfare work, and training.

Selling Things. By Orison Swett Marden. Thomas Y. Crowell Co. 275 pp. \$1.

Dr. Marden's book affords a certain relief in this rather formidable array of manuals on salesmanship. Dr. Marden does not offer a technical treatise on the subject, but, as in all of his books, the inspirational element is foremost. So popular have Dr. Marden's writings become that his published books, it is said, have reached a sale of over a million and a quarter. In short, they are among the "best sellers" outside of fiction.

BOOKS RELATING TO THE GREAT WAR

With the Twenty-Ninth Division in Gallipoli. By the Rev. O. Creighton, C. F. Longmans, Green & Co. 191 pp. Ill. \$1.25.

A Church of England chaplain's diary of his experiences in Gallipoli during the campaign of 1915. As the writer was a civilian, and claimed no knowledge of military affairs beyond what could be picked up in the course of the campaign, his book is of no special value for the military information it contains, but is interesting as a simple record of the human aspects of the contest as they presented themselves from day to day.

The Slavs of the War Zone. By W. F. Bailey, C. B. Dutton. 266 pp. Ill. \$3.50.

An Englishman's attempt to picture the countries in which dwell the Slav peoples who have

been drawn into the great war, and to describe the habits and customs of those peoples. The book is not so much an account of the war itself as of the conditions under which these Slav peoples were living in August, 1914, and of what the war has brought upon them.

With Serbia into Exile. By Fortier Jones. Century. 447 pp. Ill. \$1.60.

In this volume is related the terrible story of the Serbian retreat of 1915 as it was observed by the only American who was with the army all the way from the Danube to the Adriatic.

The Kingdom of Serbia. Report Upon the Atrocities Committed by the Austro-Hungarian Army During the First Invasion of

Serbia. By R. A. Reiss, D. Sc. London: Simpkin, Marshall, Hamilton, Kent & Co., Ltd. 192 pp. Ill. 5s.

This is a translation of the report submitted to the Serbian Government by Dr. R. A. Reiss, of the University of Lausanne. This material is said to have been gathered on the spot during the months of September, October, and November, 1914.

Belgians Under the German Eagle. By Jean Massart. Dutton. 368 pp. Ill. \$3.50.

The author of this work, an official of the Royal Academy of Belgium, states that he has employed in its compilation only those books and periodicals that were either of German origin or had been censored by the Germans. The entire work was written in Belgium between the 4th of August, 1914, and the 15th of August, 1915, and therefore "precisely reflects the state of mind of a Belgian who has lived a year under the German domination." It contains chapters on "The Violation of Neutrality," "Violations of the Hague Convention," and "The German Mind, Self-Depicted."

Belgium and the Great Powers. By Emile Waxweiler. Putnam's. 186 pp. Ill. \$1.

An exposition of the neutrality of Belgium by the Director of the Solvay Institute of Sociology at the University of Brussels. This writer complains bitterly of the treatment accorded to his country by the German press. From the very beginning of the war, he maintains that the general European public was left in ignorance of essential facts in Belgium's case. He makes specific allegations of misstatements in official German publications. He reviews Belgium's treaty relations from 1839 to 1914, upholding her right to oppose the violation of her territory.

A Little House in War Time. By Agnes and Egerton Castle. Dutton. 276 pp. \$1.50.

"A little chronicle of a great time—the everyday life of an average family during the first year of the war of wars."

"Mademoiselle Miss." Letters from an American Girl in a French Army Hospital. Preface by Dr. Richard C. Cabot. Boston: W. A. Butterfield. 102 pp. Ill. 50 cents.

Letters from an American girl serving with the rank of lieutenant in a French army hospital at the front. In a preface to the little book Dr. Richard C. Cabot says: "I find in these letters some fragment of true atonement for the huge sin and blunder of the war. Some deeds of the children of men are better and more beautiful than ever they would have been but for this brave struggle to retrieve something out of the waste and welter of evil."

A Frenchwoman's Notes on the War. By Claire de Pratz. Dutton. 290 pp. \$1.50.

Mademoiselle Claire de Pratz's observations of the attitude of the French people during the days of mobilization, and her study of internal conditions in France at the present time, published under the title of "A Frenchwoman's Notes on the War," will interest readers who are weary of the usual book on the war. The author tells us in fluent, logical English why France, fearing Germany, and cherishing the idea of *revanche*, was, in a large measure, unprepared for war. These causes naturally were largely political. She analyzes the fighting spirit of the French, the influence of war on national character, and outlines the women's part in the war. One perceives through her work a glimpse of the sources of the French "quiet, concentrated endurance that has won the admiration of the world."

Letters from France. By Jeanne Le Guiner. Translated by H. M. C. Houghton, Mifflin. 100 pp. \$1.

"Letters from France" are touching pictures of war-time life, with anecdotes of home life and stories heard at the bedsides of wounded soldiers. The writer, Jeanne Le Guiner, came to this country in 1909. After teaching five years, she returned to visit her family in the spring of 1914. Her male relatives were mobilized, and she began relief work among the sick and the wounded. Later she continued her studies at the Sorbonne in order that she might be able to aid in the support of destitute relatives. Her letters are extraordinarily vivid and make one see the nobility of the soul of *la patrie*.

The Backwash of War. By Ellen N. La Motte. Putnam's. 186 pp. \$1.

In this volume another American hospital nurse lays bare some of the most hideous effects of war as seen in an evacuation hospital a few miles behind the French lines. These sketches are far from pleasant reading, but they are absolutely truthful and accurate reports of what went on at the front.

A Boy Scout with the Russians By John Finnemore. Philadelphia: Lippincott. 392 pp. Ill. \$1.25.

An imaginative account of what happened to two boy scouts with the Russian army in Poland just before the Germans captured Warsaw.

Malice in Kulturland. By Horace Wyatt. London: The Car Illustrated. 80 pp. Ill. 60 cents.

A clever parody of "Alice in Wonderland."



FINANCIAL NEWS

I.—THE CRAZE FOR AUTOMOBILE SECURITIES

THE promoter works upward from the level of averages and the obvious. He determines what the public wants to buy or to speculate in and then satisfies the demand. Sometimes the craze is for oil stocks, again for those of silver or copper mines, and recently it has been for the abundantly created shares of automobile manufacturing concerns.

From the standpoint of public interest the distributor of automobile securities has a high average to operate on. Every owner of a car, whether for pleasure or for commercial purposes, is a potential buyer of the stock of the particular make he affects. For generations investors have been buying the securities of railroad or traction lines which they patronize and whose business success is apparent, as well as of local industries. If Mr. Ford should decide to recapitalize his company and offer a participation to everyone who owned or intended to own a Ford, he would be swamped with applications. Thousands would buy the car in order to be an investor in the most profitable concern in the United States in proportion to its capital. The average of automobile owners to individuals with an income of \$3000 or less is very high, and there apparently is a lack of balance between those 250,000 with incomes of \$4000 to \$10,000 and the more than 1,000,000 cars produced per annum for a number of years and the proposed 1917 output of 1,500,000 to 1,700,000 cars. Together these owners provide an audience of immense proportions to which the seller of automobile stocks may talk. The obvious things about which he will talk are the \$60,000,000 profit of the Ford Company in the year to June 30, 1916, on a capital of only \$2,000,000—exactly 3000 per cent—and the current selling price of General Motors common stock of \$790 a share compared with \$25 a share "before the war"—an increase also of over 3000 per cent.

Here was the situation as the promoter saw it prior to the era of cheap and, in many cases, worthless stocks of automobile and automobile accessory companies. A dozen or so of New York Stock Exchange issues representing this group had appreciated in market

value several hundred million dollars. The following table will give an immediate idea of what he had to work on:

	High Price 1916 or 1915	Price in 1914	Per Cent. of In- crease	Money Appre- ciation
General Motors, com.	790	25	3,060	\$120,000,000
Willlys-Overland com.	325	50	550	106,000,000
Studebaker, com.	195	20	875	52,500,000
Maxwell Mo- tors, com.	99	3	3,200	12,500,000
B. F. Goodrich..	80	15	430	39,000,000

There are many others whose gains were phenomenal. They were of small capitalization and less well known, and did not make the appeal of these leaders of the automobile world. Stocks that before 1914 represented nothing but good will and on which earnings in the far future were conjectural began to show returns on capital of 10 to 20 and then of 30 to 50 per cent. Dividends were paid very cautiously and first at small rates, because there were important floating debts to be liquidated. When these had been retired each dividend quarter witnessed a higher distribution to shareholders. Apparently there was no limit to what these stocks might pay or to the level to which they might go in price. If General Motors common, earning 170 per cent., sold at \$790 a share, Ford Motors stock, earning 3000 per cent., should be entitled to sell at \$13,000 or more a share. Capitalized at \$250,000,000, the Ford Company would be earning about 25 per cent.

These facts are given to suggest the background against which the promoter painted his alluring picture of fortunes to be won from the stocks of automobile companies about which no one except himself had a great deal of knowledge. Every seller of oil stocks always quotes Standard Oil and draws a parallel; every promoter of copper stocks cites Anaconda or the Copper Queen, and when railroad stocks were in vogue it was Pennsylvania, or Union Pacific, or Atchison whose record they said could be duplicated by some little jerkwater line with

no beginning or ending. And now it is Ford and General Motors.

We do not wish to give the impression that all automobile shares except those listed are worthless or on an inflated basis. There are as many good ones off the exchanges as on them. In a number of cases concerns controlled by private capital whose shares never had a public market have been acquired by strong banking syndicates and offered for subscription. Usually they have been recapitalized to the equivalent of their new earning power. The same is true of stocks of companies that have been making tires, rims, lamps, carburetors, electric appliances, valves, starters, etc., though here again a liberal supply of water has been injected and the public has been asked to pay prices that would not be justified by the average year's earnings. One instance is of an accessory company whose control could have been purchased less than a year ago for \$500,000, but was put into a combination at ten times that figure.

It is obvious that a very alluring prospectus of almost any automobile enterprise can be written from the current achievements within the industry. It is the low-priced car that catches the imagination and from which the promoter builds up his story of fortunes to be made. A feature of the present epidemic is the direct sale by the company of its stock to the public—the ultimate consumer of securities. No syndicate, with its big profits for which the stockholder has to pay; no intermediary of any kind—everyone taken in on the same basis and all having equal opportunities. The only suggestion is that the purchase be made quick, so as not to lose the market or any part of the possible appreciation. One familiar phrase is, "We are giving you the last-hour chance, as in a few days we expect to advance the price of the stock" to such and such a quotation. Investigation very often reveals the fact that the price depends as much on the ability to sell in a local market as on the real value. Investors in one city are offered stock at one price and elsewhere, if sales are slow, at a shade better to the buyer.

Some of the companies whose stocks are offered are producers and others are not. In one conspicuous case, to which a great deal of attention has been attracted, a machine has been designed and placed on exhibition and has had great pulling power from a certain class of investors. If enough response is made to the appeal for stockholders, a plant and a sizable output may result. It is a

good deal like paying in money for machinery to work a mine supposed to contain deposits of valuable ore. In such a case one participates in an adventure of speculation. Again, new stock is offered for the legitimate purpose of increasing the capacity of factories or to purchase the rights of a competitor. In either event the buyer of the stock ought to satisfy himself as to the requirements of this larger plant capacity or the advantage to his company of control at a high price of a rival's good will.

The latter situation is a phase that has been capitalized to its full extent in the outside market for automobile stocks. One of the most persistent rumors in circulation for months was of a gigantic auto merger to bring together some prominent and many little-known producers. This was all based on a combination that finally was perfected, but only included a few "big fellows," and then never was born, for the banking community stopped it before it had fairly started. It was at the time when the public was most frenzied over automobile stocks and was bidding for them at any price, and did not care what it paid for the privilege of having a slice in the underwriting of this proposed giant merger. A new company was coming on the scenes daily. Quotations made then for automobile securities—and this was five months ago—have not yet been repeated. There is a part of the public that has made a fortune on auto shares and another and larger portion which bought and now holds them at values 15 to 20 per cent. under prices current.

The day when the automobile industry was regarded with suspicion from a commercial standpoint and its securities occupied the same plane as "wildcat" mining shares has long since gone by. The industry is as stable as any. Good automobile paper ranks with that of manufacturers of farming implements, or that of the wholesale distributor of groceries, drugs, etc., or with the packing-house issues. The gross business of the Ford Company the past year was 33⅓ per cent. in excess of any railroad systems in the United States, excepting the Pennsylvania and the New York Central. With the cash on hand when its books closed for the year, this company could have paid two years' interest on the \$500,000,000 Anglo-French loan. On July 31 the General Motors had cash in hand of \$22,476,000, while the balance sheet of the Willys-Overland Company in September indicated \$15,000,000 cash and \$30,000,000 additional in quick assets. These

are stabilizing facts. The suggestion that we wish to make to readers of this department is that they be not blinded by the light which these achievements have thrown over other concerns that still have a long way to go to justify their existence, and that they show their faith in this new industry by investing in the securities of companies that are actually producing and have cars on the market. It is a fair statement that a concern that has not put into operation from 15,000 to 25,000 pleasure cars cannot lay claim to being a

commercial success or of demonstrating its ability to stand up under the severe competition which makers of low-priced machines are compelling them to in their annual price reductions and concessions in the form of additional appliances. To assemble parts in a factory and display them as a type of a car upon which a permanent investment is to be based is a dangerous undertaking and one which the man with small capital should approach with caution and wide-open eyes.

II.—INVESTORS' QUERIES AND ANSWERS

No. 786. A YOUNG MAN'S INVESTMENT PLAN

I am a young man, twenty-five years old, working on a salary, with a small outside income and have been steadily saving for several years. It is my policy to try to keep about one-half of my money invested in high yielding local securities (such as discounted mortgage notes), which net me 8 to 10 per cent., and the other half in the highest grade municipal bonds, yielding from 4 to 4½ or 5 per cent. The 8 and 10 per cent. securities require the closest attention, and are for short terms, while the bonds I prefer can be put in a safe-deposit box and left to take care of themselves. Don't you think this course a sound one? I do not care to invest in listed securities, for they fluctuate too much. Conditions, moreover, are too unsettled. I have seen mention made in the *Review of the Federal Land Bank* bonds yielding 4½ or 5 per cent. What are these bonds and where can they be obtained?

We think you are following a wise course in counterbalancing your 8 and 10 per cent. local investments in real-estate mortgage notes by carefully chosen municipal bonds. And from the average yield you appear to have set up as your standard in selecting the latter, you should experience no difficulty in keeping within the most conservative limits of quality. In short, we think you have determined upon a course that is as sure as any can be of keeping you out of trouble.

None of the Federal Land Bank bonds, to which general reference has been made several times recently in the pages of the *Review of Reviews*, have yet been issued. In fact, the Federal Land Bank system provided by legislation during the last session of Congress is not in operation in any of its branches, and will not be until some time after the first of the year.

No. 787. TAXATION OF MORTGAGES IN NEW YORK

Apropos of your recent comment on the taxation of mortgage investments, I should like to know what the laws of New York State provide in this regard. Also is there a Federal law taxing mortgages?

In New York, the law provides that mortgages secured on real estate situated within the State are not subject to taxation of any kind, the only charge against them being a recording tax of one-half of one per cent. Holders of mortgages secured on property situated outside the State are subject to taxation, but they may exempt themselves for a period of five years by the payment of a tax of three-quarters of one per cent. To secure this exemption, the tax in question must

be paid, we believe, before December 31, 1916.

The only Federal law affecting investments is the Federal Income Tax Law, which taxes the income of the individual but not the investments themselves.

No. 788. REAL ESTATE AND UTILITY BONDS

From the standpoint of safety and sound investment, which of these two forms of investment would you recommend? (1) Bonds based on first mortgages on improved real estate, 6 per cent., serial maturity; (2) Bonds based on first mortgages on public utility properties operating in the Middle West and Southwest.

No such comparison as you suggest can fairly and intelligently be made in general terms. Specific issues of securities representing these two types of investment can be compared, of course, but that is the only way in which the matter can be properly approached. There are good, bad and indifferent issues of securities in both classes, so that discrimination must be exercised as carefully in the one class as in the other.

No. 789. RAILROAD BONDS IN REORGANIZATION

I own bonds of a railroad that is in the hands of receivers and is being reorganized, and would like to have you tell me just what this means and how I am affected.

It is impossible to make any kind of general statement about how bondholders are affected in cases of railroad receiverships. Each case of the kind has its own peculiar aspects, and each bond is apt to be affected in a different way. If you will let us know the name of the road, and if you will indicate definitely the name of the bonds you hold, it is likely we shall be able to tell you what your status is, as a creditor of the road, and possibly what you ought to do in the circumstances to protect your interests.

790. GENUINE INVESTMENTS DO NOT "COIN MONEY"

Please let me know of some investments which you think will coin the most money, and at the same time prove reliable and safe.

We do not know of any security in the shape of either a stock or a bond that meets such specifications. Genuine investments do not "coin money" for their holders. You cannot get abnormally high income and the chance of a speculative profit in combination with security of principal.

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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ALBERT SHAW, Pres. CHAS. D. LANIER, Sec. and Treas.



THE LATE FRANCIS JOSEPH I., EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA AND KING OF HUNGARY

Francis Joseph was born August 18, 1830, came to the throne December 2, 1848, and died in the evening of November 21, 1916. He was, therefore, eighty-six years old, and was within less than two weeks of completing sixty-eight years as Emperor. At different times during the war period, he had been reported as ill, but he had kept his hand on the helm and had transacted public business up to the very day of his death. A cold contracted in July, while reviewing his troops, had brought on a fatal inflammation of the lungs. The death of his son, in 1887, made his nephew, the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the throne. The Archduke's murder in Bosnia, June 28, 1914, was the indirect cause of the present world war. The heirship then fell to a grandnephew, Carl Francis Joseph (see portrait on page 606). Francis Joseph was greatly revered, and was ruler as well as monarch; but his death was not unexpected, and will have no immediate bearing upon the political, military, or diplomatic conditions or relationships of Austria-Hungary. His reign began with the reconstruction of Austria-Hungary after revolution and ended in a cataclysm that threatened the foundation of his own empire with others. A review of Francis Joseph's long career will appear in our next number.

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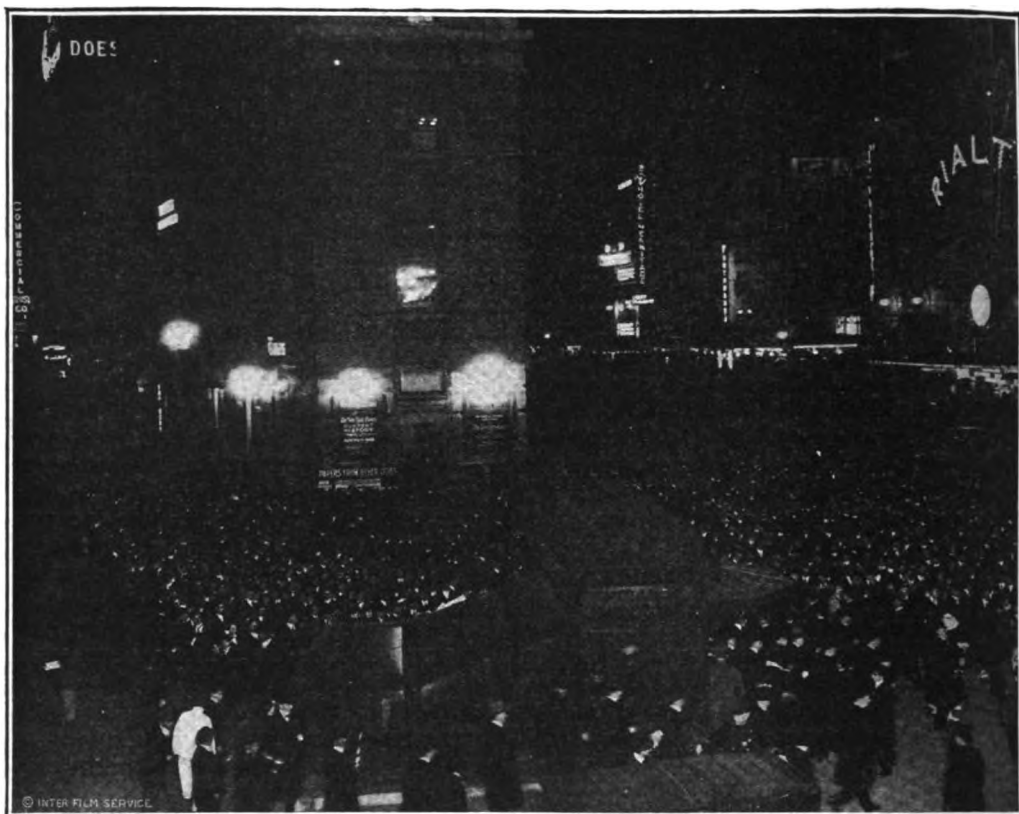
THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

The
Presidential
Election Hundreds of thousands of citizens, eager for election news, crowded the streets of New York during the evening of November 7, reading the bulletins thrown on screens by the enterprising newspapers and watching the electric signals on several lofty towers, that were to indicate tendencies and results. The early bulletins were favorable to Hughes. The polls close early in New York City and State, and the count proceeds rapidly. News from Buffalo and Brooklyn—as interpreted by experienced politicians and as supported by typical bulletins from other cities or counties—made it clear at an early hour in the evening that Hughes had carried the great State of New York, with its forty-five electoral votes, by a decisive majority. But New York had been on the list of States positively claimed by the Democrats; furthermore, New York's block of electoral votes is so large that a number of Presidential elections have turned upon this State as "pivotal." The Democrats had also claimed to the very last that they would carry Connecticut and New Jersey. And they had regarded their chances as favorable, though not assured, in Massachusetts.

Deceptive
First
Reports When, therefore, the early reports indicated that the six New England States had all gone definitely Republican, and when the slower count of the Jerseymen at length demonstrated the fact that Wilson's own State had emphatically repudiated him, the most experienced calculators were the ones most completely deceived. With one accord, Democratic and Republican, these experts were ready to stake their reputation upon the certainty that Hughes was elected. The foremost newspaper supporters of Mr. Wilson in the metropolis were the New York *World* and the New York *Times*. Both of these

papers, long before midnight of the evening of election day, had issued bulletins conceding Hughes' election by a decisive majority. Democratic headquarters also admitted it. News had come of the victory of the Republicans in Indiana and Illinois; and even Ohio was reported to the New York *Times*, by its own special men on the ground, as having been carried by Hughes and by the Republican State ticket. President Wilson, at Shadow Lawn, New Jersey, received and accepted the news of his defeat. Mr. Hughes, getting the returns in his rooms at the Hotel Astor, New York, went to sleep with the comforting assurance that he had been overwhelmingly elected.

Democrats
Conceded
Defeat How it had been done was all set forth on the front pages of the newspapers the following morning; while the editorial pages discoursed, with the prejudice or the candor that happened to suit their policy, upon the essential reasons for Wilson's defeat and for Hughes' victory. In the course of the forenoon of Wednesday, the 8th, it began to appear that throughout vast areas of the country the count had not been completed. And as the day advanced, it grew clear that the result was not to be so decisive after all. But the stock market had accepted the Republican success, and prices were soaring and speculation was rampant. As a matter of record, it may be well to state in a sentence or two the results as announced by the press on the morning after election day. The New York *Times*, in great headlines across the page, summed up as follows: "HUGHES ELECTED WITH 290 VOTES, PERHAPS 312; 7 STATES IN DOUBT; HOUSE REPUBLICAN." It should be remembered that the total number of electoral votes is 531, and that Hughes needed only 266 to



CROWDS IN TIMES SQUARE, NEW YORK CITY, ON ELECTION NIGHT, WAITING FOR RETURNS

win. The *Times* and other Democratic papers claimed 200 votes for Wilson, conceded 290 to Hughes, and put down 41 as doubtful. As a matter of fact, the full count a few days later had established the fact that Wilson had 276 votes, rather than 200, and that Hughes had only 255.

The shock of undeception was the greater to the Hughes supporters because the newspapers had given their figures as established facts, and not as merely probable or conjectural. How had so egregious an error occurred? First, let us note what were the mistakes in the guess. Wilson had, indeed, carried the 20 States, with a total of 200 electoral votes, that were assigned to him Wednesday morning by his supporters. All of these were Southern States except Colorado and Utah. Only a few of them had been contested at all, and it appeared that Wilson had lost nearly every State in which there had been a real fight. But the list of 21 States, with a total of 290 electoral votes, that the Wilson papers like the *New York Times* conceded to Hughes beyond a doubt, happened

to contain five States that had actually been carried by Wilson. And these five States, wrongly assigned to Hughes, had 50 electoral votes. The five were: Ohio, with 24 votes; California, with 13; New Hampshire, with 4; North Dakota, with 5; and Idaho, with 4. This change of 50 would obviously bring Wilson up to 250 and shrink the first-announced Hughes vote of 290 down to 240. There remained the seven States that on the morning after election were put in the doubtful list, as follows: Delaware, Kansas, Minnesota, Nevada, New Mexico, Washington, Wyoming, having a total of 41 votes. As the count proceeded, it turned out that Delaware and Minnesota had been carried by Hughes, thus adding 15 to the 240, making a total of 255. Kansas, Nevada, New Mexico, Wyoming, and Washington had been carried by Wilson, and thus 26 votes were added to the 250 we have already mentioned, making a final total for Wilson of 276. The minimum electoral vote necessary to a choice being 266, it turned out that Mr. Wilson was elected with ten votes to spare. It was a narrow margin, but it seemed immense after the shock of Tuesday night.

*Wilson Wins,
with Ten Votes
to Spare*

**Surprise
Over
California**

When so momentous a thing as a Presidential election is to be decided by the result in a single State, where the vote is so close as to be in doubt for a number of days, it is not surprising that there should be anxiety as well as suspense. It was evident that if California's thirteen votes could be taken from the Wilson column and placed in the Hughes column, it would mean four years of Republican administration, with all that such a change might imply. Since even the Democrats had at first conceded California to the Republicans, it is not strange that Mr. Hughes and his chief supporters should have thought it right to wait for the official canvass of the votes before regarding the result of the election as finally settled. It happens that California's method of arranging and printing ballots makes the count painfully tedious. The *New York Times*, on the day after election, had estimated the Hughes plurality in California as 25,000. It grew ever smaller as the actual returns came in from remote counties, until the two candidates seemed to be running even. Then an error in addition was found which put Wilson 2000 ahead, and at length the unofficial figures gave the President more than 466,000 California votes and gave Hughes less than 463,000. Fortunately, there were no serious charges of fraud or corruption on either side. Californians had voted so independently that



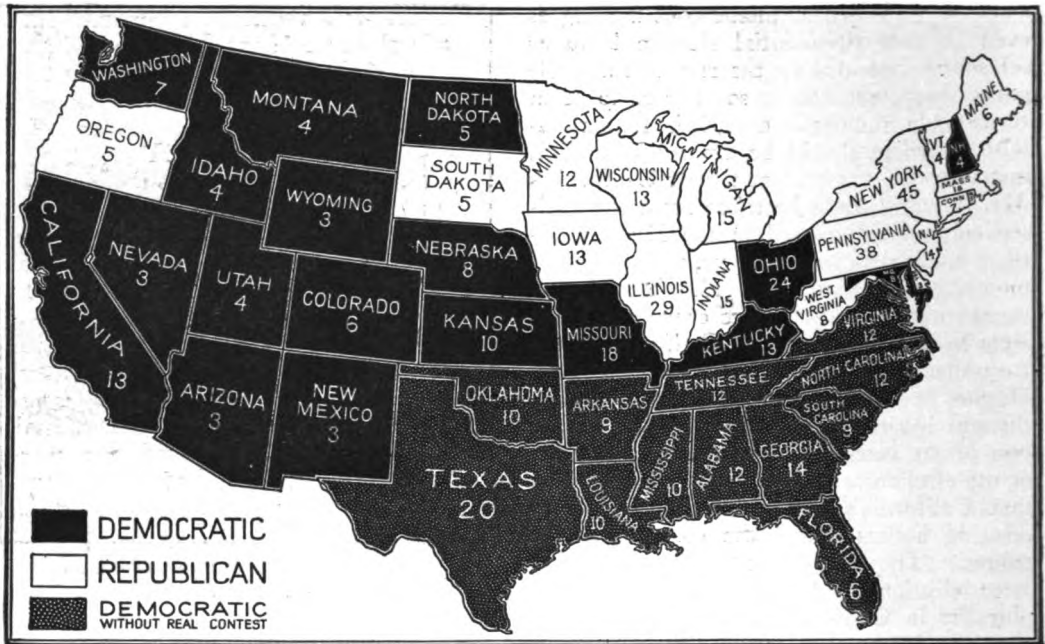
THE FEMININE WEST TO THE RESCUE
From the *World* (New York)

their ballots were much marked and "scratched." There were bound to be numerous minor errors. In the official count these errors would be likely, under the law of averages, to offset one another. It was quite improbable that corrections could wipe out the Wilson lead of 3000 votes. The official canvass began on Monday, the 13th. The tendency, as it progressed, was to produce slight gains rather than losses for President Wilson.



THE WHOLE SHOW FOR A DAY
From the *News* (Dayton)

Meanwhile, Minnesota, with its 12 electoral votes, had also proved to be exceedingly close, and its official count was proceeding with care and solicitude. Wilson could afford to lose California if he could gain Minnesota, but he must have one or the other to win. Hughes needed both States in order to bring his total up to the point of victory. The Minnesota vote proved to be much closer than that of California, but the lead was kept by Hughes, his official plurality being 396. The vote in New Hampshire also proved to be, like that in Minnesota, very evenly divided. The change of a few scores of voters in one New Hampshire village would have given the State to Hughes. In like manner the shift of a few workers in a Minneapolis or St. Paul industry would have given Minnesota to Wilson. North Dakota and New Mexico, when the count was in, were more decisive in their action, their pluralities being between one and two thou-



THIS MAP SHOWS EACH STATE'S ELECTORAL VOTE AND THE STATES CARRIED BY WILSON AND HUGHES RESPECTIVELY, ON NOVEMBER 7

sand, as also was that in Delaware for Hughes. Our accompanying map shows conveniently how the States were lined up in the electoral result. There has been a vast amount of newspaper attempt at explanation of the alleged drifts of sectional sentiment and opinion as shown by the popular vote. Many of these attempts at diagnosis have been absurd. They have not even been based upon accurate information as to the popular vote itself. Enough voters chose to vote for Wilson to give him a second term. This is the large, obvious fact.

*Causes and
Effects in
California*

Some of the friends and supporters of Mr. Hughes have been saying, with a deep sense of disappointment, that the disloyalty of a few Republicans or Progressives in California had defeated the national ticket. Governor Hiram Johnson was the Republican (as well as Progressive) candidate for the United States Senate, and he received the largest majority given to any candidate for any office in any one of the forty-eight States. His numerical lead over the Democratic candidate for the Senate is reported as more than a quarter of a million. Governor Johnson supported Mr. Hughes; and it was hard for Eastern people to understand how the Republican Presidential ticket could have lost the State under such circumstances. The

Republican vote for members of Congress considerably exceeded the Democratic vote, in so far as we are informed. It could have been guessed that old-line Republicans, supporting the national ticket, might have "knifed" Johnson for the Senate. But it was not apparent, from a distance, how Heney and certain other local Progressives who decided to support Wilson, could have caused so enormous a defection from a national ticket that Roosevelt, Johnson, and most of the influential Progressive leaders were supporting. Mr. Hughes had been badly advised in making a journey to the far West and speaking in California as early as August, before the Republicans had settled their intense local fight in the State primaries. It looked as if he had been taken in hand by leaders of the anti-Progressive wing, thinking that they might gain some prestige in their determination to prevent Johnson's nomination for the Senate. Mr. Hughes himself seems to have been blameless, except for the political indiscretion of making an untimely Western trip in August.

*No
Real
Verdict*

Republican reverses began with the Congressional and State elections of 1910. The mistakes of the Payne-Aldrich tariff, as protested against by the progressive Republican Senators, would have been enough to bring dis-

aster to the party, even if obnoxious selfishness and arrogance had not afterwards been joined with stupid political management. From Mr. Taft's extra session of 1909, until the end last month of the campaign of 1916, the Republican organization has invited its defeats by its own fatuity. It has not been beaten by Democrats, nearly so much as by itself. Mr. Hughes in his course was doubtless inspired by the laudable desire to serve the country; but the

Republican party, as managed by those who dominated the Chicago convention, has not in this great hour proved to be the chosen instrument of destiny. The contest that we have actually witnessed through the campaign period was not the drama that the real public opinion of the country had instructed the parties to stage. The final result, therefore, proved nothing very conclusive. If Mr. Hughes had not gone to

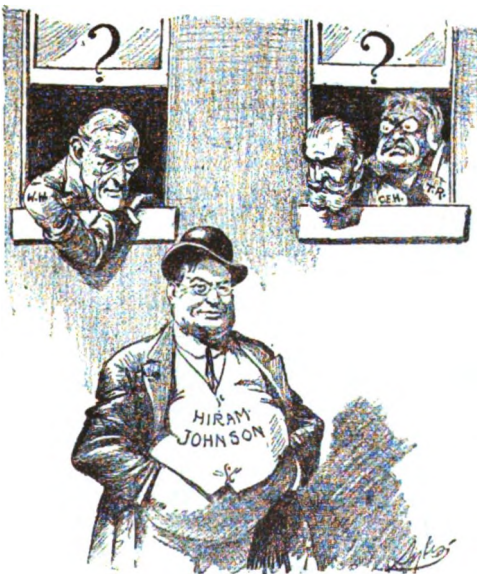


GOVERNOR HIRAM JOHNSON OF CALIFORNIA, SENATOR-ELECT BY A COLOSSAL MAJORITY, AND NOW A NATIONAL FIGURE

California at all, he would probably have carried the State on the wave of Hiram Johnson's great triumph. That would have made him President; but the general verdict would have been unchanged.

*California
Four Years
Ago*

It must be remembered that the fight in California four years ago lay between Wilson and Roosevelt, and that the popular vote for the two men was almost exactly equal. Roosevelt carried the State by far less margin than Wilson has this year. The participation of women greatly swells the total numbers. Thus, Wilson has about 183,000 more California votes in 1916 than in 1912, while Hughes has about 176,000 more votes than Roosevelt and Taft together had in 1912. It is supposed that the women were somewhat inclined toward Wilson, but it is likely that they were divided in about the same ratio as the men. Johnson's vote for the Senate seems to have been something wholly apart from the Presidential contest—a personal tribute of the entire population. His Democratic opponent was as much out of the race as was the man in Pennsylvania who ran against Philander Knox. In the Presidential contest, California would have been fairly close, regardless of candidates. The minor accidents happened to favor Wilson, at the expense of Hughes. Better planning and better luck, with skillful campaign management, would have given Hughes in California a somewhat larger plurality than that



JUST EXPRESSIONS
From the *Evening Ledger* (Philadelphia)

which has made Wilson a two-term President in the face of the Democratic platform that pledged its candidate of 1912 to the one-term principle.

*The South
Not in the
Contest*

There has been much in the newspapers to the effect that the election discloses a wholly new sectional alliance between the West and the South, thus making the Democracy a great radical force in opposition to the East. There is nothing in the results that even superficially justifies these fanciful attempts to generalize. Except for several border States, the South does not participate in Presidential contests. It has only one real party, and its electoral vote is pledged in advance to the Democratic ticket. The Southern leaders have not been in very sympathetic accord with the Wilson policies, and the South's control of the Democratic party is for distinct reasons of its own. The Democrats in the Presidential year have always the advantage of starting with a large assured block of Southern electoral votes. The Republicans in normal times do, indeed, hope to carry Vermont and Pennsylvania. But they encounter, even in those two States, well-organized opposition; and everywhere else they must fight for what they get. The South, therefore, from Virginia to Texas, was Wilson's from the start, without a con-

test. In those States where Southern sentiment is strong, but where there is a real Republican Presidential vote, no great Wilson wave was discernible. Thus in Virginia and Kentucky, Wilson actually lost a good many votes as compared with 1912. His gain in Maryland, Missouri, and Tennessee was slight and unimpressive.

*Utah and
the Mormon
Vote*

The most striking change in the entire country is to be found in Utah. Nowhere else has Mr. Wilson made so remarkable a score. He has gained much more than 100 per cent. over his popular vote of 1912, while the Republicans have greatly fallen off. There are four or five other States in the Mountain region in which the Mormons, who control the politics of Utah, are strong enough to turn the scale from one party to the other. All of these States this year have gone for Wilson. The inference is well-nigh irresistible that the authorities of the Mormon Church did what they could to bring about a change that would not have been possible if they had not favored Wilson. This comment is not made in the spirit of criticism. Four years ago the Mormon influence was for Taft. Apparently the Mormon women this year voted more freely than heretofore. They were doubtless impressed by the plea that Wilson had "kept us out of war." The Mormon communities are prosperous, and do not wish trouble with foreign nations. Furthermore, Mormondom inclines always towards respect for "the powers that be," and it has had no especial reason to be displeased with the present Administration. It is to be remembered as a fact in practical politics, that the hearty good will of the Mormons is a large asset, valuable all the way from Montana to New Mexico, especially important in Idaho, Wyoming, and Nevada, and not to be neglected even in Colorado or California.

*The
Western
Farmers*

The passing of North Dakota into the Democratic column was a surprise to Eastern Republicans. But that State especially illustrates the tendency to give political credit for business prosperity. North Dakota is perhaps the most completely agricultural State in the Union; and its largest crop is wheat. The high prices of grain and all farm products have given North Dakota its two most prosperous years. Across the border, the Dakota farmers see the terrible strain to which the European war has subjected their imme-



HOW DID IT HAPPEN? WAS HE JARRED BY THE HUGHESETTE TRAIN? DID HIRAM JOHNSON DO IT? OR, BUT WHY GO ON?

From the *Herald* (New York)

diate neighbors in Canada. The various bureaus of the Departments of the Interior and of Agriculture have earned the confidence of the Western farmers. There has been much recent legislation—such as that for farm loan banks, federal aid to roads, and so on—that the farmers have appreciated. Against all these influences, it would have required a more skilful campaign than the Republicans knew how to conduct, to hold the old-time party strength among the farmers of the West. The Hughes vote was decidedly larger in North Dakota than the total Roosevelt and Taft votes of 1912. But the Wilson gain was very much larger, so that the normal Republican majority was a little more than overcome. Nebraska and Kansas, which are also predominantly agricultural States, were both susceptible to these influences. It is rather surprising that under these circumstances Wilson's gain in Nebraska should have been only 10 or 12 per cent. compared with his vote of 1912. In Nebraska the women do not vote. But in Kansas this year they voted for the first time. Kansas has always been in a state of political ferment, and a great many of its Progressives, men and women, this year regarded Wilson as more radical and more popular in his sympathies than Hughes. The vote of Kansas women swelled the total electorate, but probably did not affect the result.

The Voting Women

As regards this very interesting question of the woman vote, we have the Illinois records. In that great State women have now voted for the first time in a Presidential year and

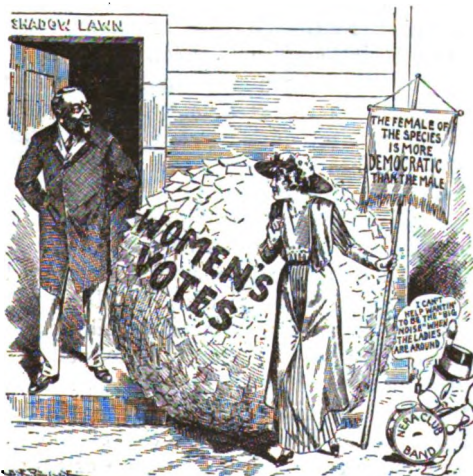


Photograph by Central News Photo Service

MISS JEANNETTE RANKIN, OF MONTANA

(Elected to Congress by the Republicans, though Democrats swept the State)

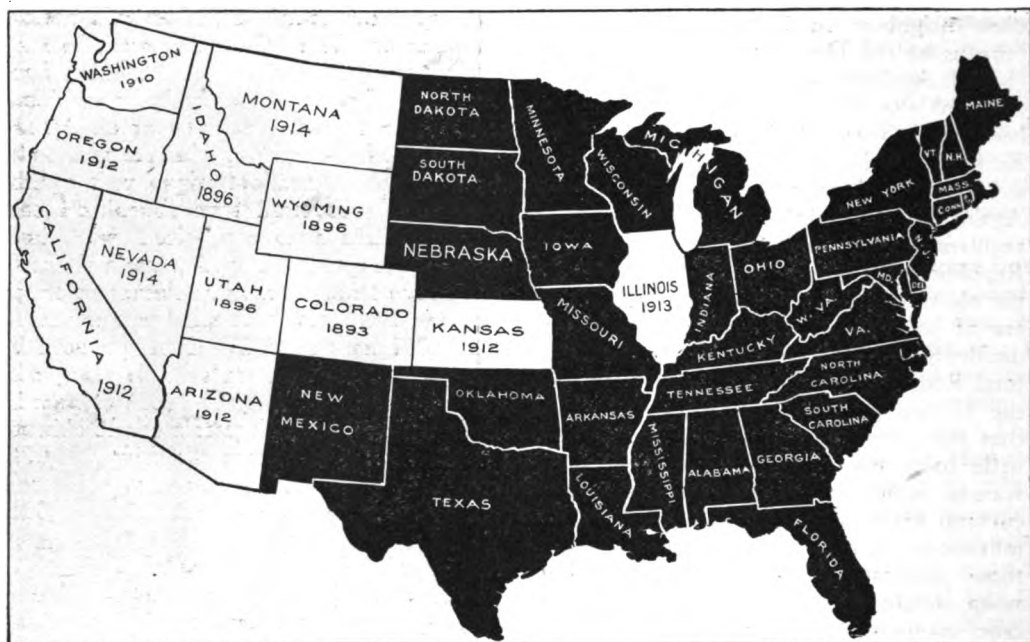
their ballots are counted separately. Mr. Hughes has an Illinois plurality of about 175,000 over Mr. Wilson. The vote of women is divided in almost exactly the same ratio as the vote of men. Thus the influences that bring about popular action in politics affect the minds of men and women in similar degree. This seems to have been quite as true in California and Kansas as in Illinois. It is possible that the women in the Mormon States were not quite as independent in their judgment as the men, and were a little more affected by what they regarded as the attitude of the Mormon Church authorities. An accompanying map shows the twelve States in which women voted last month. There are no facts as yet that sufficiently prove any of the various statements made as to the "swing" of the women's vote in one direction or in the other. Two States last month voted on the question of extending the suffrage to women, these being South Dakota and West Virginia. In both States the proposal was rejected.



TIDINGS FROM THE WEST
From the Times-Picayune (New Orleans)

Progress of the "Cause"

For convenience, our readers may wish to be reminded that the question came up for popular action in the fall of 1915 in the four States of New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, and Massachusetts, all of which de-



A MAP TO SHOW THE STATES IN WHICH WOMEN VOTED FOR PRESIDENT. ALL OF THE TWELVE BUT OREGON AND ILLINOIS WERE CARRIED FOR WILSON

feated suffrage. In 1914, when Montana and Nevada accepted woman suffrage, the proposal was rejected by popular vote in the States of North and South Dakota, Nebraska, Missouri, and Ohio. The suffragists in South Dakota have now shown great persistence in bringing the matter up for a second defeat at the polls so soon after the first. Mr. Hughes had unqualifiedly endorsed the plan of seeking to confer suffrage in a nation-wide way by federal action. Mr. Wilson had stuck to his preference for separate action by the States. It does not appear that this difference of attitude brought to Mr. Hughes many votes or took many away from Mr. Wilson. There is nothing to support the view that people in the States that have adopted woman suffrage care particularly whether other States adopt it or not. It is now conceded by political leaders in both parties that whenever as many as, let us say, 25 per cent. of the women of a given State clearly and definitely desire the ballot, it will be conferred upon them and upon the remaining 75 per cent. without any partisan or organized opposition. As a point of more than passing interest, though having nothing particularly to do with woman suffrage, it should be noted that Montana has elected Miss Jeannette Rankin as a Member of Congress. It is plain enough that women should be eligible for all elective and appointive offices, whether they vote or not.

The two things bear no necessary relation to one another. Women should hold office.

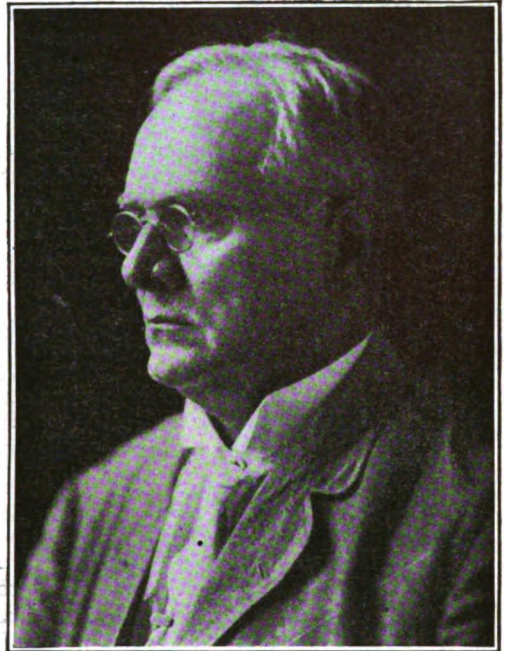
Prohibition's Gains

The prohibition wave seems to be advancing more sweepingly just now than that of woman suffrage. Our map (next page) shows the addition of the States of Michigan, Nebraska, South Dakota, and Montana. Constitutional amendments were adopted in each of these four. We should perhaps have been justified in adding Utah and also Florida to the States printed white on the map. They have not changed their constitutions, but are to enact Statewide prohibition by statute when their legislatures meet. In Utah, the present Republican Governor had vetoed a prohibition act. His Democratic successor, Governor-elect Bamberger, will sign such an act. In Florida, the Democratic primaries had declared for prohibition, and after a sensational campaign Rev. Sidney J. Catts, Prohibitionist, has been elected Governor. Thus twenty-five States may now be reckoned as won by the Prohibitionists. California this year, as in 1914, rejects prohibition, and Missouri also last month voted adversely. Several other States have resisted attempts to repeal or modify their existing prohibitory laws. Mr. Bryan, since the election, has been anew conspicuous by reason of his statement that prohibition is to be the great national issue four years hence. Attention has

been called to the remarkable coincidences of the prohibition map and that showing the Wilson electoral vote. In earlier days, the Prohibitionists were more closely identified with the Republicans than with the Democrats. The anti-saloon movement is not, of course, really associated with either of the political parties. Much attention has been attracted by Mr. Henry Ford's movement for persuading the brewers of Detroit and Michigan to accept the verdict in good temper, and turn their establishments into factories for making fuel alcohol with which to operate automobiles.

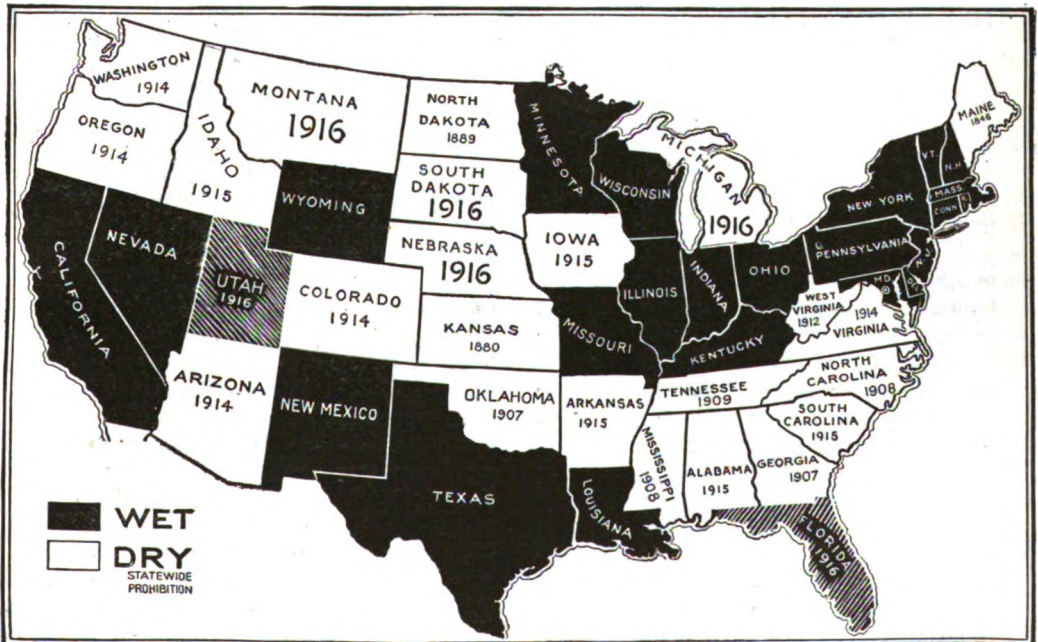
While the general electoral result has been so interpreted in the press as to have seemed to careless readers both surprising in its main outcome and sensational in its unexpected sweeps and trends, a more careful analysis shows that nothing very surprising happened and that there was no decisive popular verdict. The refusal of the American people to give William H. Taft a second term, when they had a perfect opportunity to do so, was emphatic and unmistakable. In the case of President Wilson, there was an almost even division of sentiment. If one takes only those States in which there was active campaigning, and omits that block of Southern States in which the voting was perfunctory, it will

*Nothing
Very Decisive*



REV. SIDNEY J. CATTS, OF FLORIDA
(Elected Governor on the Prohibition ticket)

appear that Hughes had perhaps something less than 8,000,000 votes and Wilson something more than 7,500,000. To put it in a different way: If one omits the States fully conceded to Wilson by both parties in ad-



WITH UTAH AND FLORIDA INCLUDED, TWENTY-FIVE OF THE FORTY-EIGHT STATES HAVE DECIDED IN FAVOR OF STATEWIDE PROHIBITION

vance, Hughes had a decided plurality in the rest of the country. The Wilson managers had claimed New York, New Jersey, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois up to the last moment. But Ohio was the only one of these States that they carried; whereas in the nature of things they ought to have carried Indiana, the President's own State of New Jersey, and New York by a close margin. New York is always, in politics, regarded as two great communities, pitted against each other. Tammany and the Democrats had promised Wilson a plurality of more than 100,000 in the great city. But this plurality actually shrank to about 40,000. The Empire State outside of the metropolis gave Hughes about 150,000, with the result of his carrying the forty-five votes of the entire State by about 110,000. Tammany has lost prestige.

The Progressives' Future Whether or not the Progressives are in the main permanently re-incorporated in the Republican party is yet to be seen. Doubtless they will remain if the Republican rank and file can rid themselves of certain leaders who are not representative. The State of Iowa gave a decisive Republican majority, reducing Wilson's vote well below that of 1912. But in Iowa, Republicanism and Progressivism have held together. Many Progressives as indi-

viduals, East and West, voted for Mr. Wilson in preference to Mr. Hughes. But there is no prospect of the mass of Progressives, either Eastern or Western, joining the Democratic party. Many of the Progressive doctrines and demands of 1912 have been accepted by both parties. In particular localities, as in Kansas, parties have not recrystallized since the split of 1912. A good many of the Ohio Progressives seem to have voted for Wilson; but taking the country at large, the Roosevelt vote of 1912, in very large proportions, followed the Colonel into the Hughes camp.

Forecasts and Results

There is little in our comments last month that does not stand the test of the actual results. Our review of the campaign was written and sent to press as of October 20, eighteen days before the election. We thought it probable that Wilson would win, that the Senate would remain Democratic with a reduced majority, and that the House would be nearly even or slightly Republican. To one thing we attributed more importance than the result justified. We were of opinion that the false issue raised by the railroad eight-hour law had deceived a great number of wage-earners, who would accordingly vote for Mr. Wilson. This influence count-

THE APPROXIMATE POPULAR VOTE FOR PRESIDENT AND THE RESULT IN THE ELECTORAL COLLEGE

Popular Vote				Electoral Vote				Popular Vote				Electoral Vote			
Wilson		Hughes		Wilson		Hughes		Wilson		Hughes		Wilson		Hughes	
Alabama	89,000	30,000	12	..	Nevada	12,448	9,842	3	..						
Arizona	29,641	19,363	3	..	New Hampshire	43,737	43,724	4	..						
Arkansas	85,000	37,000	9	..	New Jersey ...	209,332	264,320	..	14						
California	466,269	462,838	13	..	New Mexico ...	32,077	29,951	3	..						
Colorado	158,257	95,716	6	..	New York	756,010	863,987	..	45						
Connecticut ...	99,687	106,378	..	7	North Carolina	158,000	110,000	12	..						
Delaware	24,521	25,794	..	3	North Dakota..	54,449	52,831	5	..						
Florida	60,000	12,000	6	..	Ohio	578,000	496,720	24	..						
Georgia	109,200	28,000	14	..	Oklahoma	140,000	110,000	10	..						
Idaho	68,000	54,500	4	..	Oregon	116,550	123,570	..	5						
Illinois	869,152	1,044,608	..	29	Pennsylvania...	510,747	695,734	..	38						
Indiana	333,466	339,437	..	15	Rhode Island..	39,353	44,159	..	5						
Iowa	215,918	279,085	..	13	South Carolina.	68,000	1,500	9	..						
Kansas	315,000	277,000	10	..	South Dakota...	45,449	50,892	..	5						
Kentucky	219,000	193,000	13	..	Tennessee	138,647	97,553	12	..						
Louisiana	68,000	9,000	10	..	Texas	228,000	58,000	20	..						
Maine	64,148	69,491	..	6	Utah	77,381	48,948	4	..						
Maryland	133,211	113,773	8	..	Vermont	21,832	38,254	..	4						
Massachusetts .	247,327	268,361	..	18	Virginia	60,107	21,132	12	..						
Michigan	237,114	308,122	..	15	Washington ...	197,000	183,000	7	..						
Minnesota	179,157	179,553	..	12	West Virginia..	139,013	141,432	..	8						
Mississippi	91,000	5,000	10	..	Wisconsin	183,285	206,664	..	13						
Missouri	376,000	345,000	18	..	Wyoming	25,617	19,998	3	..						
Montana	80,927	54,608	4	..											
Nebraska	123,587	94,563	8	..	Totals.....	8,577,613	8,164,410	276	255						



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HON. WOODROW WILSON, WHO WILL BE ACCORDED A SECOND TERM AS PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES BY THE NEW ELECTORAL COLLEGE, A MAJORITY OF WHOSE MEMBERS SUPPORT HIS CANDIDACY

ed for less than we had anticipated, while the appeal to the farmers counted for more. We were happily justified in asserting that the talk about the "hyphen" was nonsense, and that the voters of foreign parentage would be found as loyal to their American obligations and privileges as any other voters. The real grounds upon which Mr. Wilson's foreign policies could have been justly criticized were not well explained to the voters by those responsible for managing the Hughes campaign. It is likely that Wilson gained rather more than he lost by the methods used in attacking his Mexican policy, and in attacking his treatment of the *Lusitania* case. The real truth about our foreign relationships was not set before the public in a helpful, constructive, or reassuring way. The Republicans seemed really to

be trying to help prove that Wilson had indeed "kept us out of war," as a matter of damaging accusation. Thousands of voters derived the impression that the Republican leaders thought we ought to have gone to war. The real criticism of the Bryan-Wilson policy is that its Fabian and dilatory ways had kept us on the fringes of war, whereas a prompt settlement of issues at the moment they arose, with a firm and unhesitating support of American rights, would have greatly lessened our risks and dangers.

*Contrasts in
Management*

The situation was such that the "ins" could create the news as they went along, and shift the issues *ad libitum*. The Republicans were not skilful in following the vastly clever moves of the Democrats. There was a gen-

eral atmosphere of zeal, loyalty, intelligence and good teamwork about the conduct of the Wilson campaign that was lacking in the other camp. There was much painful testimony to this effect on the part of experienced observers. In the last days of the campaign, there was frantic purchase of full pages for Republican advertising in the metropolitan press, with the printing of hastily composed and unconvincing statements which probably did not affect a single voter. But

tests, it would be found that the Republicans came out far in the lead. It will be remembered that the expiring Congress has yet to hold its last session, beginning on the first Monday in December. Its two-year term ends on the 4th of March, when Mr. Wilson will be inaugurated for his second term. Unless some great emergency should arise, the President will not call an extra session, and the new Congress will not assemble till December, just one year hence. The time has come when we should change our system in several respects. It should be the new Congress, not the old, that is due to meet a month after the election. Without changing the Constitutional scheme of the Electoral College, it would be easy to adopt the plan of choosing electors individually in



Photograph by the American Press Association
HON. VANCE MCCORMICK, DEMOCRATIC NATIONAL
CHAIRMAN
(On the day after election, when the reports were
changing to Wilson)

the neglect of systematic publicity-work in the agricultural States of the West was so complete that it seemed deliberate and intentional. All this, of course, was Mr. Hughes' misfortune, and not his fault.

*Congress
Slightly
Republican*

With the count not revised in all districts, the Republicans seem to have elected a majority of the members of the next Congress. It is reported that 217 Republican members and 212 Democratic are chosen, with six others who are Progressives or independents. This would indicate, when taken in conjunction with State elections, that the Republicans, rather than the Democrats, now hold a slight party preponderance in the country. If one were taking only the Congressional districts in which there were actual con-



Photograph by the American Press Association
HON. WILLIAM R. WILLCOX, REPUBLICAN NATIONAL-
CHAIRMAN
(Hearing reports on the day after election)

Congressional districts, with two chosen at large by the entire State. This would do away with the undue importance of the large States under our present method. Choosing the electors on the general State ticket was not the original custom, and is not prescribed in the Constitution. That document empowers the state legislatures to prescribe the method of choosing or appointing the presidential electors.

*Progressive-
Republicans
for Senate*

The new Senate (after the 4th of next March) will remain Democratic, by a majority of ten instead of the present majority of sixteen. This would have been reduced to six but for somewhat personal issues in the two small States of Delaware and Rhode Island. These two States were carried by Hughes, but Senators du Pont and Lippitt were defeated by Democratic opponents. Our table (below) gives the list of victors in the thirty-two States that chose Senators. It seems to us that a very definite Progressive-Republican trend was indicated. Thus California and Washington, giving their electors to Wilson, chose Hiram Johnson and Miles Poindexter as Republican Senators by thumping majorities. Minnesota, choosing Hughes electors by the narrow margin of less than 400 votes, gave Frank Kellogg about 68,000

over his Democratic opponent. Ohio, which reelected the Democratic Senator, Pomerene, gave him only a quarter of Wilson's plurality. Only the great Ohio swing to Wilson defeated Myron Herrick for the Senate. Two Republican Senators were elected in Indiana, both of them running better than Hughes. In Maryland, where Wilson was victorious by more than 20,000, the Republicans elected the Senator. In Nevada, the Republican candidate was defeated by a very close margin, running far ahead of Hughes. New Jersey elects a progressive Republican, Mr. Frelinghuysen, to the Senate by a plurality vastly larger than the very ample plurality given to Hughes.

*A
Consistent
Trend*

In New York, where Hughes had 110,000 plurality, the Republican Senator-elect, Calder,

UNITED STATES SENATORS ELECTED NOVEMBER 7

Arizona—Henry F. Ashurst, D.*
Arkansas—W. F. Kirby, D.
California—Hiram Johnson, R.
Connecticut—George P. McLean, R.*
Delaware—Josiah O. Wolcott, D.
Florida—Park Trammell, D.
Indiana—
 { Harry S. New, R.
 { James E. Watson, R.
Maryland—Joseph Irwin France, R.
Massachusetts—Henry Cabot Lodge, R.*
Michigan—Charles E. Townsend, R.*
Minnesota—Frank B. Kellogg, R.
Mississippi—John Sharp Williams, D.*
Missouri—James A. Reed, D.*
Montana—Henry L. Myers, D.*
Nebraska—Gilbert M. Hitchcock, D.*
Nevada—Key Pittman, D.*
New Jersey—Joseph S. Frelinghuysen, R.
New Mexico—Andrieus A. Jones, D.
New York—William M. Calder, R.
North Dakota—Porter J. McCumber, R.*
Ohio—Atlee Pomerene, D.*
Pennsylvania—Philander C. Knox, R.
Rhode Island—Peter Goelet Gerry, D.
Tennessee—Kenneth D. McKellar, D.
Texas—Charles A. Culberson, D.*
Utah—William H. King, D.
Vermont—Carroll S. Page, R.*
Virginia—Claude A. Swanson, D.*
Washington—Miles Poindexter, R.*
West Virginia—Howard Sutherland, R.
Wisconsin—Robert M. La Follette, R.*
Wyoming—John B. Kendrick, D.

*Reelected.

Republican Senators succeed Democrats in California, Indiana (2), Maryland, New Jersey, New York, and West Virginia.

Democratic Senators succeed Republicans in Delaware, New Mexico, Rhode Island, Utah, and Wyoming.

GOVERNORS OF STATES ELECTED NOVEMBER 7

Arizona—Thomas E. Campbell, R.
Arkansas—Charles H. Brough, D.
Colorado—Julius C. Gunter, D.
Connecticut—Marcus H. Holcomb, R.*
Delaware—John G. Townsend, R.
Florida—Sidney J. Catts, Proh. (D).
Georgia—Hugh M. Dorsey, D.
Idaho—Moses Alexander, D.*
Illinois—Frank O. Lowden, R.
Indiana—James P. Goodrich, R.
Iowa—W. L. Harding, R.
Kansas—Arthur Capper, R.*
Massachusetts—Samuel W. McCall, R.*
Michigan—Albert E. Sleeper, R.
Minnesota—J. A. A. Burnquist, R.*
Missouri—Frederick D. Gardner, D.
Montana—Samuel V. Stewart, D.*
Nebraska—Keith Neville, D.
New Hampshire—Henry W. Keyes, R.
New Jersey—Walter E. Edge, R.
New Mexico—H. O. Bursum, R.
New York—Charles S. Whitman, R.*
North Carolina—Thomas W. Bickett, D.
North Dakota—Lynn C. Frazier, R.
Ohio—James M. Cox, D.
Rhode Island—R. Livingston Beeckman, R.*
South Carolina—Richard I. Manning, D.*
South Dakota—Peter Norbeck, R.
Tennessee—Thomas C. Rye, D.*
Texas—James E. Ferguson, D.*
Utah—Simon Bamberger, D.
Vermont—Horace F. Graham, R.
Washington—Ernest Lister, D.*
West Virginia—John J. Cornwell, D.
Wisconsin—Emanuel L. Philipp, R.*

*Reelected.

Republican Governors succeed Democrats in Arizona, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, New Jersey, and New Mexico.

Democratic Governors succeed Republicans in Colorado, Ohio, Utah, and West Virginia.



© Gessford

HON. JOSEPH S. FRELINGHUYSEN, OF NEW JERSEY
(Elected to the United States Senate, defeating Mr. Martine, the present Democratic Senator)

had 193,000 over Mr. McCombs. In North Dakota, where Wilson prevailed over Hughes, the Republican Senator, McCumber, was reelected by a heavy majority. Very striking is the result in Wisconsin, where the Hughes plurality over Wilson was 26,000. The famous progressive Republican Senator, La Follette, had a vote which seems to have amounted to two-thirds of the total poll, and which may some day be counted. His plurality probably exceeds 150,000. Pennsylvania gave a plurality of 185,000 for Hughes over Wilson, while giving to Philander C. Knox for the Senate a plurality over his opponent only less than the approximately 300,000 that Hiram Johnson received in California. Philander Knox and Frank Kellogg—while not as radical as Miles Poindexter, Robert La Follette, or Hiram Johnson—belong to the progressive rather than the "standpat" wing of the Republican party. Thus a review of the Senatorial and Congressional campaign leads us to the opinion that the voters on November 7 showed a marked swing of the pendulum in the direction of progressive Republicanism.

*Votes
for
Governors*

In thirty-five States last month Governors were elected. Our table gives a list of the victors—about half of whom are assigned to each party. Results were in doubt in Arizona and New Mexico. If the popular vote is considered, the election of Governors, like that of Congressmen and United States Senators, shows a decided Republican trend. Thus while former Governor Cox, of Ohio, has defeated Governor Willis, it is by a very small plurality compared with Wilson's (more than six times as large) over Hughes. Governor Whitman was reelected in New York, over Judge Seabury, by a plurality approximating that for Hughes. Governor McCall, in Massachusetts, led the ticket. Mr. Lowden's victory over Governor Dunne, in Illinois, was overwhelming. Those studying election figures should remember that in Illinois the women vote for President, but not for State officers. Governor Capper (Republican), in Kansas, was victorious by 100,000 plurality, while Hughes lost the State to Wilson by 38,000. In Minnesota, where the Presidential vote hung critically in the balance awaiting the official count, the Republican Governor was decisively reelected. In Indiana, Mr. Goodrich was elected Governor with a plurality considerably better than that given to the Presidential ticket. These items are enough to show that the normal trend on election day was emphatically Republican.

*Machinery
Versus
Sentiment*

In the Presidential contest, the country was so evenly divided that no clear verdict was given to either side. But the election, considered in all its phases and aspects, was not a victory for the Democratic party, but on the contrary one for the Republicans; and it was especially emphatic wherever candidates were entirely satisfactory to the Progressives. It is needless at this point to moralize upon the things that happened in June at Chicago, when the Progressive and Republican conventions met simultaneously. The machinery of the Republican party in 1912, and again in 1916, was controlled by men who represented a minority of the effective vote upon which it is necessary to rely for victory at the polls. If there are those who would still dispute the claim that Mr. Roosevelt was "manipulated" out of a nomination in 1912, it is hard to believe that there will be any impartial historian of politics who will deny that he was "negotiated" out of one

in 1916. But this is a mere observation in passing, and is not offered in the spirit of challenge or argument.

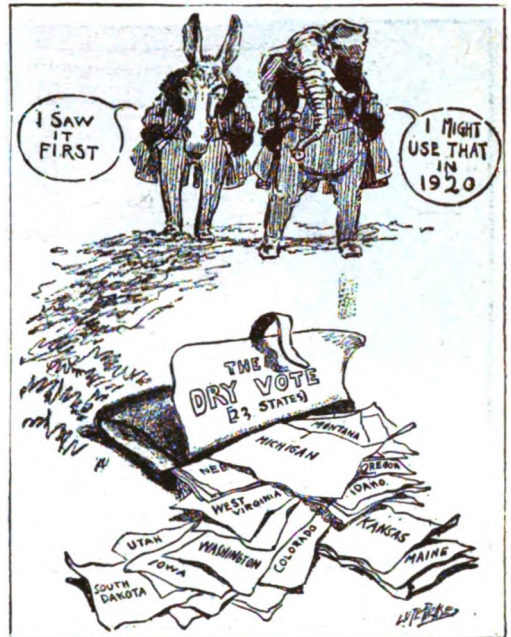
**Cheerful
Acceptance
of Results**

In view of the extreme closeness of the Presidential choice, as turning upon the vote of less than one-half of one per cent. of the total vote in the State of California, the country is to be congratulated upon the spirit in which the result has been accepted. Our election methods can be improved in several respects, but they are more accurate and more honest than they have ever been before. Mr. Wilson is facing many difficult problems, with the country's earnest wish for his wise guidance and full measure of success. He will find in his second term that he will not be able to rule the United States, as heretofore, through his power of unquestioned leadership, with submissive party majorities in the two houses. He will have to modify his methods, and henceforth be less a European Prime Minister and more an American President. This would be a favorable time for action of some kind upon the recurring question of second terms. Once in the White House, every President begins to work for a second term, no matter what he might have thought on that question previous to his own elevation. There are few thoughtful men in any party who fail to see the harm of what is known as "second-term politics." The politicians in both great parties are already looking about for their candidates of 1920. The Republicans will have to take a "progressive"; and so, of course,



A GRAIN OF COMFORT
[The new House will be Republican]
From the News (Dallas)

Dec.—2

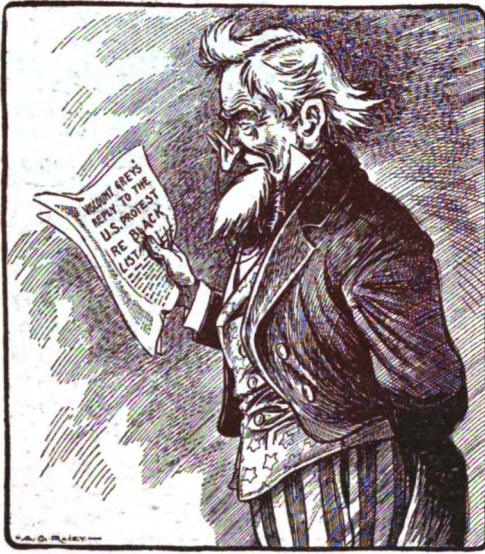


WHO WILL PICK IT UP?
From the Evening News (Newark, N. J.)

will the Democrats. The experience of Mr. Hughes now renders it improbable that the Democrats will nominate Justice Brandeis. Secretary Lane, unfortunately, was born in Canada. Mr. Bryan will perchance seek the Democratic nomination, on a platform advocating nation-wide prohibition and woman suffrage.

**Our
Foreign
Problems**

Meanwhile, however, the President has on hand his ever-accumulating burden of diplomatic problems. The load grows heavier because so few matters are settled promptly at the initial moment. Everything is subjected to a process of argument and delay, with a tendency to have disputes become acrid, and to have misunderstandings grow into controversies. It was stated some two weeks after election day that President Wilson had turned aside from all other business to devote himself to our foreign problems. During the campaign months these for the most part had been in abeyance. German-Americans have been somewhat conciliated by our Government's attitude on the subject of commercial submarines, and by the good treatment of the *U-53* when that engine of destruction entered an American port in October. As for the Allies, we were allowing them to do everything that they pleased by way of interference with our rights on the sea, our verbal protests evidently be-



SATISFACTORY

UNCLE SAM: "Oh, I see. John Bull was right after all."

From the *Star* (Montreal)

[This Canadian cartoon shows that our British neighbors regard the "black-list" policy as acceptable to Uncle Sam.]

ing for home consumption. Mr. Wilson's election will be deemed a verdict for the British Orders in Council. Now that the election is over, however, we shall have to do something about Mexico; and we shall doubtless resume our habit of sending occasional legal briefs to the belligerents, labeling them diplomatic notes. It is the clear impression in Great Britain and France that we have quite fully acquiesced in their "blacklist" policy, and that we do not intend to protect our mails.

Some
Domestic
Issues

Domestic problems, however, will obtrude. With the assembling of Congress on December 4, the President must prepare and deliver his annual message; and he is pledged to give the first place to his program of compensation to the railroads for the heavy exactions of his trainmen's eight-hour law. He is committed to a plan of legislation that would prevent railroad strikes; to the bill enlarging the Interstate Commerce Commission; and to consideration of increased freight rates. We are discussing these questions at greater length, from the economic standpoint, in subsequent paragraphs. From the political standpoint, it would seem likely that the arbitrary tone that the labor unions have assumed is reacting somewhat to the advan-

tage of the down-trodden investors in railroad securities. The American Federation of Labor has decided to join hands with the railroad brotherhoods, in a fight for something that the public does not as yet entirely understand. The eight-hour day is one thing, and very desirable in itself. The attempt to use the lawmaking power to force private employers to pay wages at arbitrary rates is a different thing, and not to be desired. On the other hand, transportation strikes and the stoppage of railroad business are intolerable nuisances, that the public must protect itself against at any hazard.

Defense
Questions
Unsettled

Congress will have to face enormous appropriation bills, and there will be some plain debating of army and navy questions. We shall find ourselves paying unheard-of sums of money for an army that cannot be recruited to its nominal strength because our volunteer system of enlistment is obsolete. The National Guard expansion of the Hay law is a failure, because the arbitrary calling out of the entire force for no reason ever explained, to spend long months somewhere near the Mexican border, exhibited to every sensible young man the great imprudence of joining National Guard organizations that could be used in such fashion. A number of very small countries have better and stronger armies than we, while we are paying out for our army more than all of the effective small countries in the world put together, perhaps, are ordinarily expending on their military defenses. These questions will become acute in Congress this winter. Furthermore, it is



THE SHEPHERD'S DIVERSIONS
From the *World* (New York)

expected that every phase of our recent dealing with the Mexican problem and with so-called "border defense" will be subjected to severe inquiry and drastic discussion.

*The United
States and
Mexico*

As these pages were written, on November 20, the conferences of the Mexican American Joint Commission were believed to be approaching an end. For eleven weeks, six men had labored incessantly to invent a plan for effective border patrol and to solve some of Mexico's most pressing economic problems. Secretary Lane—speaking also for his colleagues, Judge Gray and Dr. Mott—was hopeful for the complete success of the conferences; and it was understood that two of the three Mexican members, Mr. Bonillas and Mr. Pani, were in general accord with the American representatives. The dominant personality among the Mexicans, however—Luis Cabrera, Minister of Justice in the Carranza cabinet—was reported to be out of sympathy with the Americans upon all questions and at all times. Meanwhile, the ability of Venustiano Carranza to restore peace and order in Mexico appears to be more doubtful now than at any time since he was recognized by the United States and the Latin-American republics, more than a year ago, as leader of the dominant faction. The bandit Villa, with one good leg and perhaps 2000 followers, seems able to do about as he pleases in the great state of Chihuahua, while Carranza's military chieftains never cease their planning to "round him up"—*mañana!* It was freely asserted last month



"DON'T BLOW OUT THE GAS"
From the *Times* (New York)

that Villa is planning an attack upon the line of General Pershing's American troops. In the south, also, several states are beyond the control of Carranza. Near Mexico City, Zapata has always been a thorn in the flesh; and within recent weeks Felix Diaz and his "Legalista" followers have become not only active but widely successful. The return of 6000 troops of the National Guard, ordered on November 15, gave rise to reports that it was the beginning of a general withdrawal of the militia from the border and of the Pershing expedition from Mexico—although less than a month earlier President Wilson had declared that the emergency which led to the call of the National Guard, on June 18, still existed. The cartoons on this page, taken from the two papers in New York that are the chief supporters of the Administration's policy, appeared on November 19 (*Times*) and November 20 (*World*). It was evident that a new move in the Mexican game was about to be attempted at Washington, and that Carranza was to be told how his quondam friends really felt about him. Mr. Cabrera's position rested on false assumptions. He was talking for a government that could give no guarantees. It was time for us to find our own policy and support it.



WHY SO CHESTY?
From the *World* (New York)

*Panama and
Freight
Rates*

The influence of the Panama Canal on transcontinental freight rates has been illustrated during the past year in a striking way. There has long been a rate "war," antedating by many years the opening of the Canal to traffic, between Pacific coast cities and the so-called inter-mountain or interior points, represented by Spokane, Washington. The situation prior to the opening of the Canal was this: Because of water competition freight rates from Eastern points to the coast cities of San Francisco and Seattle were lower than to the interior cities, each of which had to pay—in addition to the comparatively low rates to the coast based on water competition—the local rate from the coast to the interior point. After a ten-years' fight the Interstate Commerce Commission abolished this back-haul charge on freight originating at Missouri River points; and on that originating farther east the charge was cut down. After the Canal was opened and the railroads began to lose a large share of their transcontinental business they themselves applied to the Interstate Commerce Commission for permission to lower their rates on certain commodities to coast points. Their petition was granted, but at the same time minor benefits were granted to the interior cities. The slides which closed the Canal in September, 1915, suspended water competition for about seven months; and by the time the Canal was reopened for traffic, the American ships that had carried freight from Atlantic to Pacific ports were all engaged in carrying munitions to Europe, and water competition no longer existed. Spokane now asked to have the low rates to the coast abolished and the commission acceded to her plea, although even the railroads themselves opposed it and it was known that water competition must soon be restored. The coast ports, however, have asked for a rehearing, and if they should charter steamships for the Canal trade on their own account the freighters that were formerly in the trade might be induced to return and inaugurate a new era of low water freights.

*General
Goethals'
Report*

In his final report as builder of the Canal and Governor of the Canal Zone, General Goethals replies to statements regarding the slides, that have been circulated recently from English sources. It has been alleged, for instance, that the entire length of the Gaillard Cut is affected, whereas less than one

mile of a total length of 8.75 miles has been found unstable. There is just as little truth in the story that the bottom of the canal through this section is a bog. Every foot of the channel was excavated through rock, all of which had to be drilled and blasted. General Goethals is convinced that these slides will at last be overcome for all time. The revenues of the Canal, according to his report, are not on a wholly satisfactory basis at the present time. In fact the Canal is now losing between 30 and 40 per cent., although he estimates that by basing tolls on earning capacity of vessels, instead of net registered tonnage, a dividend on the investment could be earned. Freight carried on the decks of ships is not included in net registered tonnage, but only what is carried in the holds. Consequently American vessels in the coastwise trade are now taxed higher proportionately on their cargoes than English ships.

*Government
Oil
Reserves*

The Oil Leasing bill which passed the House in January last was favorably reported by the Public Lands Committee of the Senate, and will be considered at the coming session of Congress. This measure recognizes the interests of certain claimants of oil lands in Southern California which were located under the mining laws, years ago, and which the Navy Department now wishes to have withheld from patent, in order that a supply of fuel oil for the new warships may be assured. The purpose of the bill is to do justice to those claimants who honestly entered upon the lands under the Federal laws, and have expended money in development. The Government has already made two naval reserves of oil lands, which are not affected by this bill; and it owns 3,000,000 acres from which additional reserves may be created for a naval fuel supply. In the article on "Our New Navy," which Miss Laut contributed to our November number, allusion was made to the issue raised in California over these naval reserves of oil lands. The Oil Industry Association of California, represented at Washington by ex-Gov. James E. Gillett, maintains that the Government still has ample petroleum resources, without confiscating properties already developed in good faith. Assistant Secretary Roosevelt of the Navy Department holds that the reserved lands are essential if the Government's ship-building policy is to be carried out, but

that every justifiable claim should be compensated. He insists, however, that no more oil shall be removed from the lands in question. Meanwhile, Secretary Lane, himself a Californian, may be trusted to see that the oil interests of the Golden State are fairly dealt with. Miss Laut's tone in her article last month was inspired by zeal for the navy and protection of national interests that concern California pre-eminently. We have formed no advance judgment upon the merits of particular oil-land controversies, and are confident that justice will be done to private interests while the larger interests of the public are also conserved.

*Our
Foreign Trade
Doubles*

The foreign trade department of the National City Bank of New York City, which, under Mr. Vanderlip's direction has shown great distinction in statistical work, has recently published a remarkable analysis of our foreign trade operations since the war began. Its estimate of the aggregate business we shall do in foreign trade during 1916 is \$8,000,000,000, an increase of 50 per cent. over 1915 and an increase of 100 per cent. over 1914. It is noticeable in the bank's analysis that these tremendous figures are a result very largely of abnormal prices for articles and commodities exported, rather than the simple result of greatly increased quantities of exports and imports. Thus, as late as November, 1915, the value of wheat exports was being calculated on the basis of \$1.12 per bushel, while a year later the export price was \$2 per bushel. So that in some commodities an actual decrease in the quantity of exports or imports still left a large number of dollars in the turn-over of the foreign trade.

*Our Gold Stock
Doubles That
of 1904*

The enormous trade balance in our favor resulting from excess of exports over imports in this unprecedented volume of foreign trade has been partly settled by the shipment of gold to us from Europe. We have now more gold in the United States than ever before in history, 40 per cent. more than two years ago and 100 per cent. more than twelve years ago. The exact quantity on October 1, 1916, was \$2,636,009,564. Of this, we have gained, since the war began, \$748,738,904.

*Prices
Continue to
Soar*

Almost every necessity of life except railway charges have continued their upward flight in price. Foodstuffs have increased nearly 100

per cent. since the beginning of the European War. Flour has sold as high as \$12 a barrel, nearly double the normal figure. Coal in New York reached, in the first week in November, a price of \$15 per ton, much more than double the average price of the last five years. This phenomenon was due primarily to a temporary famine in the coal supply resulting from a serious car shortage which the railroads are striving to correct. Later in November the ton price of coal had dropped back to between eight and ten dollars. Potatoes by the bushel cost the unprecedented sum of \$2.40. Turning to the basic commodities, price advances have been quite as serious and are continuing to grow. Iron and steel, already at the highest prices since Civil War days, are still rising; the mills have recently announced an increase in the price of steel rails of \$5 per ton. Copper, as a result of new wholesale orders from Europe, was sold in November at 32 cents a pound, comparing with less than 12 cents before the great war. By the middle of last month cotton prices had become firmly entrenched at above 20 cents a pound, as compared with about 6 cents in the autumn of 1914.

*Famine Prices
for Paper*

The Federal Trade Commission has completed its investigation into the present abnormal prices for paper and its cost of manufacture. No industry is more seriously threatened by the extravagant rise in the prices of raw materials than the printing and publishing busi-



WAR PROSPERITY

(While the capitalist and the munition-worker are flourishing, the high cost of living makes the salaried man a victim of our false prosperity)
From the *Herald* (New York)

nesses. Periodicals other than newspapers, for instance, must suddenly pay, in 1917, from 75 to 100 per cent. more for their raw material—paper—than in any year for the last decade. The Trade Commission report in its remarks on the mill costs of paper manufacture made the striking statement that during the first half of 1916, when the prices of paper to the consumer were soaring, the cost of producing the paper was actually less than it had been at any time during the preceding three years. This remarkable finding in the face of claims by the manufacturers that the prices of their raw materials had risen extravagantly, is explained simply and finally by the following facts: The ingredients for which the mill had to pay higher prices made up only a small percentage of the aggregate cost factors; and that disadvantage was more than swept away by the great cost reductions resulting from operating the mills twenty-four hours a day six days in the week, with every pound of paper

sold without effort or expense to clamoring buyers. In spite of this fortunate situation of the paper makers, buyers of news-print not protected by contract arrangements have had to pay as high as six and even seven cents a pound for paper that would have cost them under like conditions in 1914 less than three cents. The Trade Commission finds that the 1916 mill cost of producing this news-print paper is about 1.65 cents.

*Our New
Shipbuilding
Achievements*

Nothing in the present seething industrial activity of America is more striking than the sudden expansion of the business of shipbuilding. Just how fast and far we have gone in hurrying the construction of cargo carriers to take the place of those destroyed in war, interned in neutral ports or sealed up in German harbors, is shown in a recent report of the Department of Commerce. To-day the Delaware River shipyards have tonnage under construction exceeding any shipping district in Great Britain, which is equivalent to saying, of course, in the world. Ninety vessels are building in this one center, aggregating 419,213 tons. The Delaware River's nearest competitor is the great British shipbuilding district of Newcastle, with 401,926 tons. Altogether in the United States there are now building 417 vessels of 1,545,270 tons—almost equal to the total for Great Britain.

*Railroads to
Contest the
Adamson Act*

On November 15 it was announced that the railroads would appeal to the courts to obtain a decision on the constitutionality of the so-called Adamson Eight-Hour Law, and, if the measure is found to be constitutional, to obtain some ruling that would afford a sufficiently clear interpretation of the meaning of the law to enable them to put it into practice. The managers of the roads were hesitating whether to institute a great number of suits,—no less than 5,000 were mentioned as possible,—or to bring up some more concentrated test cases. The four railroad brotherhoods at once threatened reprisal if such a legal attack were made on this legislation which was forced through Congress with so little consideration on the eve of the Presidential election. The opinion of most fairminded observers is that it was an entirely proper thing, and useful to all parties interested, to have a final decision as to the legal status of the Adamson measure. But the brotherhoods were inclined to look on the move as an attack on a point of vantage that they had won, and openly



Photograph by American Press Association

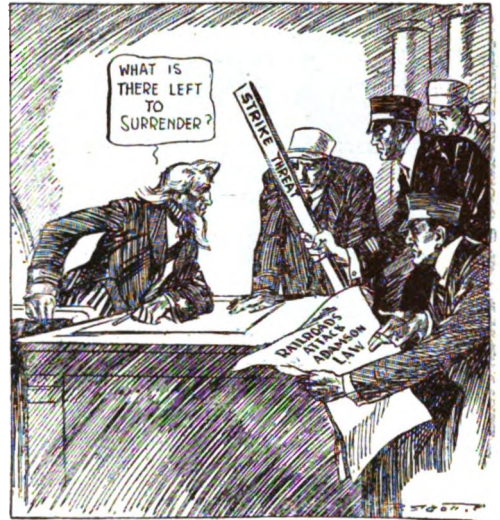
A NEWSPAPER PRINTED ON A SHINGLE

(This reduced facsimile shows a newspaper, the entire edition of which was printed on shingles, last month, at a town in the State of Washington. It is one of the curiosities of a paper famine that reminds us of conditions in the South in 1863)

threatened a strike by January 1 next if the plans of the railroads were carried out. The brotherhoods announced that they would take no part in defending the legislation in court, but would leave that to the Government's law officers.

**The Newlands
Railroad
Commission**

On November 20 the Newlands Joint Congressional Committee began in Washington its investigation into the Federal laws regulating railroads and other interstate public service corporations and into the feasibility of Government ownership of railways. The future findings of this commission are regarded as the basis on which President Wilson will recommend changes in such laws covering Federal regulation as seem to be antiquated or inadequate. While the field of research before the committee is so large that no important results can be hoped for in the coming short session of Congress, the investigation is regarded as highly important as affecting the attitude of the President toward new railroad legislation during his second term of four years. Senator Newlands has divided the inquiry into two main heads: Government regulation, and speculation as to Government ownership. The Senator is on record as believing in regulation as opposed to ownership. Under the first head the commission will try to find whether the Interstate Commerce Commission is overloaded with work, and whether its activities should not be confined to questions of discriminations, rebates and rates. The matter of in-



WHERE WILL IT END?
From the *Leader* (Cleveland)

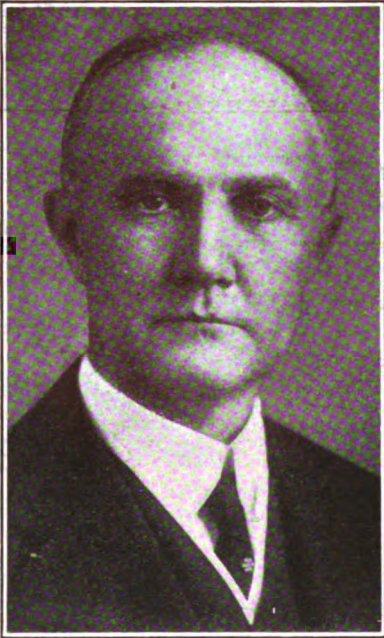
creasing the membership will be considered, and methods of getting more prompt action in such situations as was created by the application of the railroads for higher rates. The commission will go straight into the question whether the carriers are obtaining rates which maintain their credit at a point enabling them to give a proper service to the public; and it will report on the wisdom of the present dual regulation of rates and other matters by the States and the Federal Government. The last point is a sore one for the railroads. They are unanimous in their desire to be freed as much as possible from the restricting and often conflicting laws of forty-eight regulators, and much prefer to take their chances under central regulation at Washington.



DRAGGING IT INTO COURT
From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul)

As to the feasibility of Government ownership, the commission will inquire into the efficiency and economy of the present State-owned roads of other countries, and whether such a change is compatible with our American system of government. It will report its ideas as to a practical program for effecting Government ownership by purchase or condemnation of the properties. It is much to be hoped that in this field of Senator Newlands' research his committee will face squarely the present situation as to our efficiency in Government expenditures. The railroads of the United States are estimated to be worth between twenty and twenty-five billion dollars. Their turn-over of business

The Consideration of Government Ownership



© Harris & Ewing.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL THOMAS W. GREGORY
(Who will direct the legal defense of the Adamson
Eight-hour Law before the federal courts)

is many times greater than the turn-over of the present business handled by our Government. As capable authorities as Senator Burton and Senator Aldrich have estimated that at least one-third of the money expended by our nation through the Government is now wasted. With the railroads suddenly taken over, even 10 per cent. of this rate of waste would be financially disastrous. In the mind of the average cool-headed business man this simple consideration is the most important of all in answering the question whether we shall or shall not leave the railroads to private ownership. Senator Newlands' opening address on November 20 was remarkable for its breadth, impartiality, and poise. Judge Adamson, author of the "eight-hour law," is vice-chairman of the Commission. Facts and opinions are invited from all directions.

*Cuba Now
Stable and
Prosperous*

There were many phases of the Presidential election in Cuba, on November 1, that bore close resemblance to our own contest. Four years ago President Menocal (Conservative) had been elected, chiefly by reason of a split in the Liberal Party. There had this year been

strenuous efforts made to unite the factions; and Dr. Alfredo Zayas, as Presidential candidate, was actively supported by ex-President Gomez, the dominating personality in the Liberal Party. The election was close, and for some days it appeared that Zayas had been elected. On November 5, however, it was announced that the reelection of President Menocal was assured. There is a general inclination to congratulate Cuba upon the result, for during the Menocal administration there has been little strife and much progress. Essentially an agricultural country, Cuba is at present enjoying general prosperity through the high price of sugar—which has tended to revive interest in agriculture and has also had a favorable influence on general business conditions. Foreign trade increased nearly 40 per cent. during 1915, with total imports and exports of \$410,000. Exports of sugar alone amount to \$200,000,000 a year. Not only has the Cuban farmer increased his cane crop, but he receives at least one cent more per pound for raw sugar than he did a year ago. The national treasury also has benefited from "war prosperity." Economic, social, and political conditions will continue to improve; and the end of President Menocal's second term should see the republic on a sound and permanent basis.



Photograph by Press Illustrating Service

MARIO G. MENOCAL, RE-ELECTED PRESIDENT
OF CUBA

**The War
in
November**

Our readers will find in the pages contributed by Mr. Simonds a review of the larger current facts and conditions in the great European War that for lucidity and interest is beyond praise and for value is beyond comparison. The movements in Rumania, the loss of Monastir by the Bulgarians, the situation on the West front, the steady growth of the British army in adequacy, the significance of the announced creation of a new Kingdom of Poland—all these things are set forth by Mr. Simonds in fresh chapters written at the very moment of our going to press. We are made to see that Germany's first purpose in endeavoring to crush Rumania, the newest member of the great Allied group, is to give an object-lesson that will have a bearing upon peace. That the two Central Empires are exceedingly anxious to bring the war to an end is evident in many ways. The foremost statesmen in Germany, Austria, and Hungary are making statements intended to influence the outer world.

**German
Efforts**

Germany is relaxing no effort, because she wishes to prove her claim to an advantageous peace. She is turning Russian Poland into an independent kingdom, partly because she wishes to secure the enlistment of a large Polish army. She is impressing and deporting Belgian labor on a considerable scale, because she is determined to produce absolute economic efficiency within her jurisdiction. She must operate mines, maintain full agricultural production, and keep all kinds of industries alive while the war takes an ever-

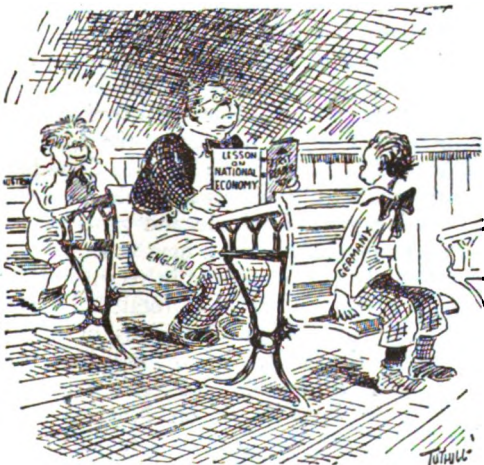


Photograph by American Press Association

COUNT APPONYI, HUNGARIAN STATESMAN

(Whose hopes lead him to think that Germany and England may find early basis for peace negotiations)

increasing toll of her sons. Thus she must find one way or another to utilize the services of Poles and Belgians, regardless of once-recognized rules applying to the treatment of civilians in occupied territory. Inquiries from our State Department at Washington regarding the complaints of Belgium over the violent removal of thousands of men for labor in Germany, indicate quite a novel change of attitude toward the European situation on the part of President Wilson and Secretary Lansing. It is not supposed, however, that the inquiries are made with a view to any practical forms of protest. Germany is endeavoring by all conceivable means to prove to England and France that they can not afford to make the expenditures of money, resources, and time that will be needful in order to impose their own terms upon a conquered, crushed, and submissive Germany.



ENGLAND, AS THE NEW PUPIL, LEARNING GERMANY'S LESSON IN NATIONAL ECONOMY

From the *Star* (St. Louis)

Thus, as the third Christmas season of the great war approaches, there is little prospect of peace. The war will be waged as actively through the winter as weather conditions may permit, and it will probably assume terrific dimensions with the great climax of Allied offensive that may be expected next summer. The best informed see little hope of peace before 1918. The abnormal conditions produced by the war begin to affect every neutral nation in countless ways. The most obvious of these are the economic disturbances, already described in these pages,

**War's Burdens
Universal**



Photograph by American Press Association

YOUNG CANADIAN WOMEN AT WORK IN A MUNITION FACTORY, ASSEMBLING FUSES

producing something like famine prices in food, fuel, and various articles of common use. A policy which has sent surplus American supplies to Europe, and has diverted our labor to the making of war goods, has brought distress upon millions of our own people. It is not strange that disturbances in the relations of labor and capital should be seen on every hand. In Europe, the inevitable hardships of existence are being met in such a way as to increase personal and social efficiency. The so-called "prosperity" of America, due to inflated war prices and speculation, has not thus far produced those virtues that self-denial and enforced thrift are awakening in England, France, Germany, and other European lands.

Greater Britain Perhaps the most important single item of news from Greater Britain is that of the decision of the Australian people, in their popular vote on compulsory military service. The referendum was held on October 28, women voting as well as men. It had been necessary to recruit about 32,500 men for the month of September, in order to meet the "wastage"

of war and keep up Australia's full quota of 440,000 troops. Failure to secure the required enlistments led Premier Hughes to demand conscription. It was confidently expected that this measure would be upheld. But 1,080,000 voters were against it, while only 1,007,000 were for it. The financial burden of the war rests heavily upon the Australians, but they feel that they must pay the reckoning if they are to look to the continued protection of the British Navy. It would hardly be possible to introduce conscription in Canada, because of the relatively slight enthusiasm of the French-Canadians for the war. Canada as a whole, however, is showing great fortitude and generosity in her war support, although new volunteer soldiers have been hard to find in recent months. Canadian enlistments have totaled 370,000, and a quarter-million Canadians have been engaged at the front. Their losses have been great and deplorable. Premier Borden, speaking in New York on November 20, was as firm for the fight to a finish as Mr. Lloyd George himself could have been. South African loyalty is shown in our article (see page 633) on Premier Botha.

RECORD OF EVENTS IN THE WAR

(From October 21 to November 20, 1916)

The Last Part of October

October 21.—The Premier of Austria, Count Karl Stuergh, is assassinated at Vienna by Fredrich Adler, a radical Socialist editor and secretary of the Social Democratic party.

The Bulgar-Turco-German army operating on a 45-mile front in the Dobrudja district, under Von Mackensen, resumes its successful attack upon the Russians and Rumanians.

In the Thiepval area of the Somme battle, the British advance from 300 to 500 yards on a front of nearly three miles.

October 23.—Constanza, Rumania's chief port and railroad terminal on the Black Sea, is captured by the Bulgar-Turco-German army.

Premier Borden of Canada appeals for additional efforts to promote volunteering for overseas service, which has decreased greatly during the past four months; the Dominion has enlisted 370,000 since the war began, 250,000 of whom have actually gone to the front.

The extent of aeroplane activity is indicated by statements in official reports, which show that twenty British, French, and German machines were "brought down" in a single day on the western front alone.

October 24.—By a sudden blow at Verdun, the French penetrate the German lines to a depth of two miles, winning back the fort and village of Douaumont, the Thiaumont field work, Haudromont Quarries, and Caillette Wood.

October 25.—Cernavoda, at the head of the Rumanian bridge across the Danube, is occupied by the army under Field Marshal von Mackensen; the Rumanians destroy the great ten-mile bridge across the river and adjoining swamps.

On the Transylvanian front, General von Falkenhayn recaptures Vulcan Pass.

The left wing of the Allied armies in Macedonia joins with the right wing of the Italian army in Albania, completing a line from the Adriatic to the Egean Sea.

October 25.—The German Admiralty announces that during September 141 hostile merchant ships were sunk by mines or submarines, or captured; 39 neutral merchant ships were also sunk for carrying contraband.

German torpedo-boats make a night attack on the British cross-Channel transport service; the British admit the loss of two destroyers, an empty transport, and six "drift net" boats.

October 27.—In Austria, Dr. Ernest von Koerber (Minister of Finance) becomes Prime Minister, succeeding Count Stuergh, assassinated.

October 28.—The American steamship *Lanao*, carrying contraband of war, is sunk by a German submarine off the Portuguese coast.

The British merchant steamer *Marina* is sunk by a submarine off the Irish coast; six Americans are among those lost, and, as the survivors affirm that the vessel was torpedoed without warning, the submarine issue between the United States and Germany once more emerges.

The men and women of Australia vote upon

the question of compulsory military service (voluntary enlistments having fallen below the desired level), and reject the proposal by 1,080,000 to 1,007,000 votes.

Captain Boelke, the German aviator, said to be the most successful the war has produced, is killed in an air collision; he had brought down 40 enemy aeroplanes.

The German Reichstag passes the bill for a new war credit of \$2,856,000,000, with only Radical Socialist votes in opposition.

A German newspaper, quoting official statistics, declares that (since the war began and up to October 12) 1253 enemy ships have been sunk, besides 200 neutral vessels carrying contraband.

October 29.—Allied reports declare that Rumania has checked the Austro-German advance through the Transylvanian Alps, particularly near the Red Tower and Vulcan Passes.

October 31.—The German war-submarine *U-53*—which destroyed five ships off the American coast on October 8—returns safely to a German port.

A report of British casualties in October places the total at 4331 officers and 102,702 men.

The First Week of November

November 1.—The German merchant-submarine *Deutschland* arrives at New London, Conn. (completing her second trip from Germany), laden with dyestuffs and drugs, besides a consignment of precious stones, stocks, and bonds.

A new Italian offensive on the Carso Plateau, from Goritz to the Adriatic Sea, breaks the Austrian line at several points and results in the capture of nearly 5000 prisoners.

It is learned that the German cruiser *Karlsruhe* blew up on November 4, 1914, off the north-eastern coast of South America, cause of explosion unknown.

November 2.—The Germans at Verdun evacuate Fort Vaux, the French thus regaining the second of the two permanent fortifications lost in the great German attack of April-June.

It is announced that Lieut.-Gen. Vladimir Sakbarov will command the Russo-Rumanian troops in the Dobrudja; the French General Bertholet will act as adviser to the Rumanian army defending the Transylvanian passes.

Greek revolutionists, followers of Venizelos, occupy Katerina (southwest of Salonica) after a short fight with Government troops; the revolutionist forces are now estimated to number 30,000.

November 4.—The German submarine *U-20* runs aground on the Danish coast and is destroyed by her crew.

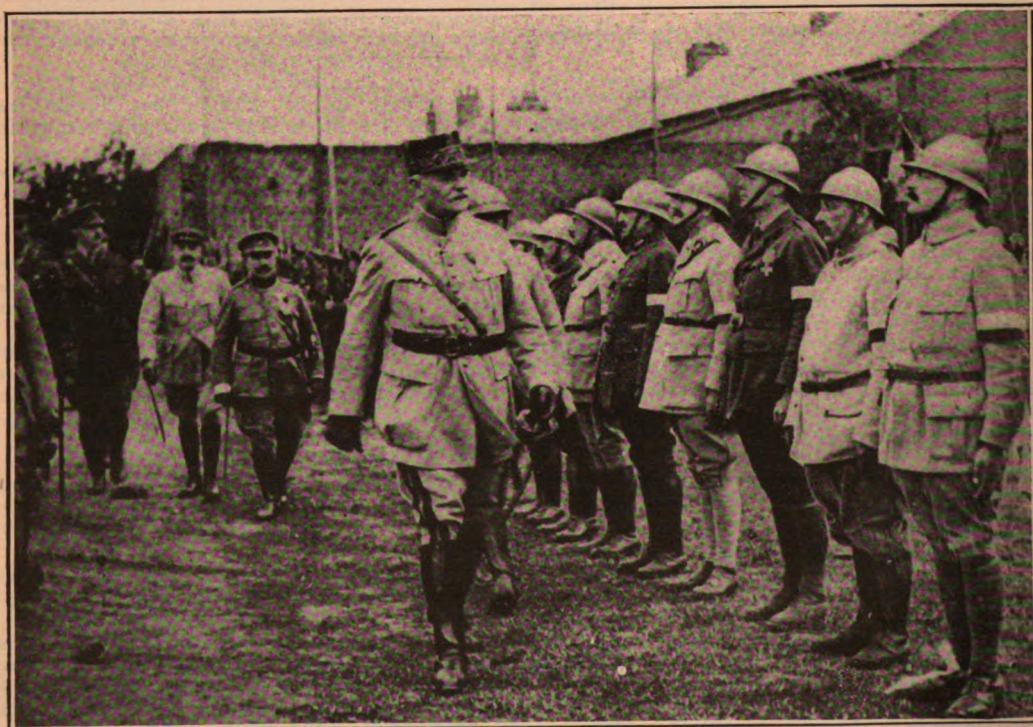
A London newspaper's record of neutral ships sunk by Germans since the beginning of the war shows 186 Norwegian, 47 Swedish, 38 Danish, 18 Dutch, 22 Greek, 10 Spanish, 2 American, and 1 Brazilian.

November 5.—A new Kingdom of Poland is proclaimed by the Emperors of Germany and Austria-Hungary, confined to territory conquered



AT MISS WINIFRED HOLT'S "LIGHT HOUSE" IN PARIS

From left to right: Miss Esther Cleveland, daughter of President Cleveland, teacher of stenography at the "phare"; Miss Winifred Holt; a blind captain, wearing the Legion of Honor and Croix de Guerre; a blind lieutenant, also decorated with the Legion of Honor and Croix de Guerre; a blind music pupil, who since his misfortune won a prize for music at the Conservatoire in Paris; a one-armed blind pupil, who is an inventor; and Miss Bernhard Grant, granddaughter of President Grant, a teacher of languages and music at the "phare"



THE MEN WHO ARE TO PAINT FRANCE'S NATIONAL BATTLE PICTURES

The French Government has appointed a corps of artists who will paint, as a national record, the battles of the western front. The picture shows the General, accompanied by French and British officers, reviewing "The Artists Corps," who are attached to the army and, of course, in military uniform

from Russia; its government is to be constitutional, with an hereditary monarch, under guarantees for free development in intimate relations with the Teutonic powers.

In the Dobrudja district, the western flank of Von Mackensen's army is forced back by the Rumanians and Russians.

November 6.—The British steamer *Arabia* is torpedoed and sunk in the Mediterranean, the passengers being rescued; the British Admiralty insists that no warning was given.

It is reported from Berlin that Adolph von Batocki, president of the Food Regulation Board, will be superseded by General Groener.

The Entente Powers, it is reported, lend \$1,000,000 to the revolutionist government set up in Greece by Venizélos.

November 7.—Cardinal Mercier, Primate of Belgium, issues a protest to the civilized world against the deportation of Belgian citizens (reported to number 30,000) for forced labor in Germany.

The American steamer *Columbian*, from Boston to Italy, is sunk by the German submarine *U-40* off the coast of Spain; the crew is afterwards rescued from small boats.

The Second Week of November

November 8.—Transylvania, Hungary, is again invaded by a Russian army—under General Letchitsky, moving from northwestern Rumania.

The new British post of Minister of Pensions is filled by the appointment of Arthur Henderson, leader of the Labor Party in the House of Commons.

November 9.—Austro-German forces in the Stockhod region of Volhynia carry the first line of Russian trenches, taking nearly 4000 prisoners.

The French Minister of Finance introduces an appropriation bill for the first quarter of 1917, carrying a total of \$1,894,600,000 (\$21,000,000 a day); he announces that the second national war loan amounted to \$2,300,000,000, with 3,000,000 subscribers.

British and German aeroplane squadrons comprising more than 60 machines meet in a sustained air battle over the Somme front; along the entire western front, 42 British, German, and French aeroplanes are "brought down" in a day.

November 10.—Count Adam Tarnow von Tarnowski (Minister to Bulgaria) is appointed Austro-Hungarian Ambassador to the United States—succeeding Dr. Dumba, who was recalled in September, 1915.

The Serbian army recaptures from the Bulgarians and Germans the last height dominating Cerna Valley and the road to Monastir.

November 12.—With the capture of Saillisel in the Somme section, the French penetrate what was the fourth line of German defense when the battle began on July 1.

November 13.—The British launch a new offensive against the German line in France, on both sides of the Ancre Brook, at the northern end of the Somme battle line.

General Sir Sam Hughes, Canadian Minister of Militia and Defense, resigns his office because of friction with Premier Borden and other members of the Dominion government.

November 14.—The British capture the strongly fortified village of Beaucourt in their new ad-

vance in the Ancre region, taking 5000 German prisoners within two days.

The State Department at Washington makes public Great Britain's reply (dated October 10) to the American protest regarding the "blacklist"; the reply upholds the action of Britain, as within its rights and involving no infraction of international law.

The Third Week of November

November 15.—Dispatches from the Rumanian war zone indicate that in the Dobrudja district the Russo-Rumanian army has moved forward fifty miles since checking its retreat; the real danger to Rumania now lies in the Transylvania district, where the army under the German General von Falkenhayn has been heavily reinforced.

The British Admiralty announces that German submarines have sunk 33 vessels without warning since May 5, with a total loss of 140 lives.

November 16.—Serbian, French, and Russian troops advance six miles towards Monastir, the principal city of southern Serbia held by Germans and Bulgarians.

The French announce that they have definitely checked a great German counter-offensive in the Somme battle, after 24 hours' fighting.

The British House of Commons adopts without division a resolution authorizing the government to take exceptional measures to conserve the nation's food supply.

November 17.—The German merchant-submarine *Deutschland* collides with and sinks a tug at the beginning of her second return voyage to Germany and is forced to return to her pier in New London.

Winston Churchill (formerly First Lord of the British Admiralty) urges and predicts government control of shipping, universal service not only for the army but for general purposes, and the fixing of food prices and restriction of consumption.

The French official report recounts an aeroplane flight of 435 miles made by Captain de Beauchamp, starting from the French front, bombarding points in Munich, crossing the Alps, and landing at Venice.

The French cities of Bordeaux, Lyons, and Marseilles arrange with New York bankers a bond issue of \$60,000,000 for the alleviation of suffering caused by the war and for other municipal purposes.

November 19.—Serbian and other troops of the Allied army in Macedonia enter Monastir, the first city to be reconquered from the Bulgarians and Germans.

German troops complete their passage through the Transylvanian Alps and enter the plains of western Rumania, taking more than 20,000 prisoners since November 1.

The commander of the Allied fleet in Greek waters orders the German, Austrian, Bulgarian, and Turkish ministers and their staffs to leave for their respective countries.

November 20.—The German War Office announces that the Teutonic troops in western Rumania are approaching Craiova, 120 miles from Bucharest.

The French Government creates the post of Director-General of Transports and Importations, with control over all traffic by rail or water; Albert Claveille is appointed to the office.

RECORD OF OTHER EVENTS

(From October 21 to November 20, 1916)

AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

November 1.—Virginia's Statewide prohibition law goes into effect, and the State becomes the eighteenth to be absolutely "dry."

November 3.—The preliminary reports of treasurers of the national campaign committees show contributions of \$2,012,535 to the Republicans, and \$1,310,729 to the Democrats.

November 7.—Electors of President and Vice-President, and Representatives in Congress, are chosen throughout the United States; 33 United States Senators are elected by popular vote; and in 34 States Governors are chosen, together with legislatures and other State and local officers (see page 591).

Woodrow Wilson (Dem.) is reelected President, with 276 votes in the Electoral College to 255 for Charles E. Hughes (Rep.); President Wilson also receives a plurality of the popular vote.

Elections to the Sixty-fifth Congress result as follows: 217 Republicans, 212 Democrats, 2 Progressives, 1 Progressive-Protectionist, 1 Inde-

pendent, 1 Socialist, and 1 Prohibitionist. . . . In Montana Miss Jeannette Rankin is elected Representative-at-Large, the first woman to sit in the national legislature.

The voters of Michigan, South Dakota, Nebraska, and Montana adopt Statewide prohibition amendments; in Missouri a prohibition amendment is rejected.

The voters of South Dakota and West Virginia reject amendments extending the suffrage to women.

In Maryland, the voters adopt an amendment providing for a State budget.

November 17.—The American Federation of Labor, in convention at Baltimore, records its opposition to President Wilson's legislative program, making railroad strikes illegal before investigation.

November 20.—A joint Congressional committee, under the chairmanship of Senator Newlands (Dem., Nev.) begins a comprehensive investigation of railroad and other transportation problems.

AMERICAN RELATIONS WITH MEXICO

October 21.—It becomes known at Washington that Judge Advocate General Crowder has rendered a decision, for army administrative purposes, declaring that the Pershing expedition into Mexico creates a legal state of war.

October 22.—Elections are held throughout Mexico for delegates to a constitutional assembly to meet at Queretaro in November.

November 2.—The Mexican-American Joint Commission adjourns until November 10 (over Presidential election), having been in conference nine weeks.

November 10.—It is learned that followers of Villa have captured Parral and other Chihuahua cities, while "Legalistas" supporting Felix Diaz have made recent progress in the provinces south of Mexico City.

November 15.—The War Department at Washington orders the return from the border of five regiments of the National Guard, 5296 men.

FOREIGN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

October 29.—In Nicaragua, agents of American bankers take steps to control a portion of the internal revenues, until overdue indebtedness is liquidated.

October 30.—The Chinese Parliament elects Gen. Feng Kwo-chang as Vice-President of the Republic.

November 1.—In the Cuban election, President Mario Menocal (Conservative) is reelected by a small plurality over the candidate of the reunited Liberals, Alfredo Zayas.

November 7.—Wu Ting-fang, former Minister to the United States, becomes Minister of Foreign Affairs in China.

November 17.—The lower chamber of the Netherlands Parliament makes women eligible to membership in the States-General.



CARL FRANCIS JOSEPH, NEW EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

(The death of the aged Emperor, November 21—see our frontispiece—brought to the throne Carl Francis Joseph, a grandson of the late Emperor's brother. He is twenty-nine, having been born August 17, 1887. He was educated for public life, knows the languages of the different races of the empire, and is an officer in the army. He is well known at Berlin, is happily married and has two small children, and is personally both popular and deserving. Further details regarding him will appear in our next number)



Photograph by American Press Association.

MISS RUTH LAW, AT THE COMPLETION OF HER AEROPLANE FLIGHT FROM CHICAGO TO NEW YORK, ON NOVEMBER 20

(Miss Law created a new American non-stop 'cross-country record, with a flight of 590 miles from Chicago, descending at Hornell, N. Y., to replenish her fuel supply)

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

October 21.—It is reported from Peking that the French consul at Tien-tsin has forcibly seized a square mile of territory adjoining the French concession.

October 24.—In a disturbance following an attempt to arrest General Batista, a revolutionary leader of Santo Domingo, Batista and two captains of American marines are killed.

October 28.—Brazil and the United States exchange ratifications of a treaty providing for investigation of disputes before appealing to arms.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

October 20.—A storm on Lake Erie wrecks four steamers and causes the loss of more than 50 lives.

October 22.—The world's wheat harvest is estimated by the International Institute of Agriculture (Rome) to be 7 per cent. below the average and 25 per cent. below that of 1915.

October 24.—It is estimated that the average level of food prices in New York City has increased 40 per cent. within a year.

October 25.—On the New York Cotton Exchange, cotton for May and July delivery passes the 20-cent mark, for the first time since the Civil War.

November 3.—The British steamers *Connemara* and *Retriever* collide in the Irish Sea and sink immediately; all but two of the 94 passengers and crew are lost.

November 3-4.—Victor Carlstrom flies from Chicago to New York in a Curtiss 200-h.p. military biplane; the attempt to make the flight without stop is unsuccessful, but a new American non-stop record of 452 miles is established; actual flying time for the 900 miles is 8 hours and 37 minutes.

November 5.—A conflict between Industrial Workers of the World and a citizens' committee at Everett, Wash., results in the death of six persons; the Workers had come from Seattle to aid in a strike at Everett.

November 7.—A street-car in Boston plunges through an open drawbridge and drowns 45 passengers.

November 8.—Two lieutenants in the United States navy are blown to pieces by the premature explosion of a bomb during an aeroplane flight near Washington.

November 9.—The Nobel Prize for Literature for 1915 is awarded to Romain Rolland, the French playwright and novelist, and that for 1916 to the Swedish poet, Verner Heidenstam.

November 10.—It is announced that the General Education Board and the Rockefeller Foundation have appropriated \$2,000,000, to be added to property and funds amounting to \$9,000,000, for the founding of a medical depart-



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood.

THE SPANISH PRINCES AS BOY SCOUTS, PLAYING THE GAME OF WAR

(Prince Alfonso, at the left, is the nine-year-old heir to the throne. His brother, Jaime, a year younger, is deaf and dumb)

ment in connection with the University of Chicago, which will be the foremost medical institution in America.

November 15.—Wireless communication is established across the Pacific from San Francisco to Tokyo (5440 miles), with a relay at Hawaii. . . . A National Industrial Conference Board is founded at New York City—a combination of employers' associations to protect American industrial interests against unfair legislation and to offset the power wielded by organized labor.

November 19-20.—Ruth Law flies in her small biplane from Chicago to New York, with two stops; she creates a new American cross-country non-stop record of 590 miles.

OBITUARY

October 18.—Norman Duncan, author of books about Labrador, 45.

October 23.—Sir Joseph Beecham, Bart., the British manufacturer of patent medicines, 68.

October 24.—Judge Elmer B. Adams, of the United States Circuit Court of Appeals at St. Louis, 75.

October 25.—William M. Chase, the noted portrait painter, 67. . . . William Bell Wait, originator of a point system for reading by the blind, 77. . . . Brig.-Gen. John McEwen Hyde, U. S. A., retired, 74.

October 26.—Benjamin Franklin Trueblood, author, educator, and peace advocate, 69.

October 28.—Prof. Cleveland Abbe, known as "the father of the Weather Bureau" at Washington, 77.

October 31.—Silas Gamaliel Pratt, a well-known composer and musical director, 70. . . . Elting A. Fowler, Washington correspondent of the *New York Sun*, 37. . . . Gen. Huang Sing, commander of the Chinese rebel army in 1911. . . . Abbe Henri Thedyvat, the French archæologist, 72. . . . Charles Taze ("Pastor") Russell, a widely-known independent minister and lecturer, 64.

November 2.—Judge A. P. McCormick, of the United States Circuit Court of Appeals, 84.

November 4.—Dr. James David Moffatt, for 33 years president of Washington and Jefferson College, 70.

November 5.—Cardinal Francis Della Volpe, 71.

November 6.—Mrs. Dion Boucicault, the widely known English actress, 83.

November 7.—Henry Ward Ranger, a noted American marine and landscape artist, 58.

November 10.—Charles Noel Flagg, the portrait painter, 68. . . . Marquis Charles Jean de



HENRYK SIENKIEWICZ

(The famous Polish author of "Quo Vadis?" and other novels, who died last month)



© Paul Thompson

WILLIAM MERRITT CHASE

(Born near Indianapolis, Ind., in 1849; died at New York on October 25. Next to Sargent, Mr. Chase was America's most famous portrait painter. He received his art education chiefly at Munich, under Piloty, but was influenced by French art and by the Old Masters, especially Velasquez. He excelled as a portrait painter, and like Rembrandt and Rubens painted still-life with a masterly effect of color and form. His paintings are to be seen in all our public art galleries, where they furnish striking examples of ripe scholarship in the technique of oil painting)

Vogue, a distinguished French diplomatist, 87.

Daniel Leet Wilson, first president of the Bell Telephone Company, 76.

November 11.—Wilbur Fiske Sadler, Adjutant-General of the New Jersey National Guard, 46.

Alfred Joseph Naquet, a noted French chemist and politician, 82.

November 12.—Percival Lowell, the astronomer, director of the Lowell Observatory at Flagstaff, Ariz., 61.

November 14.—Robert G. Valentine, former Commissioner of Indian Affairs, and chairman of the first Minimum Wage Board in Massachusetts, 44. . . . Henry George, Jr., a former Member of Congress from New York, 54.

Brig.-Gen. Daniel C. Kingman, U. S. A., retired, formerly Chief of Engineers, 64.

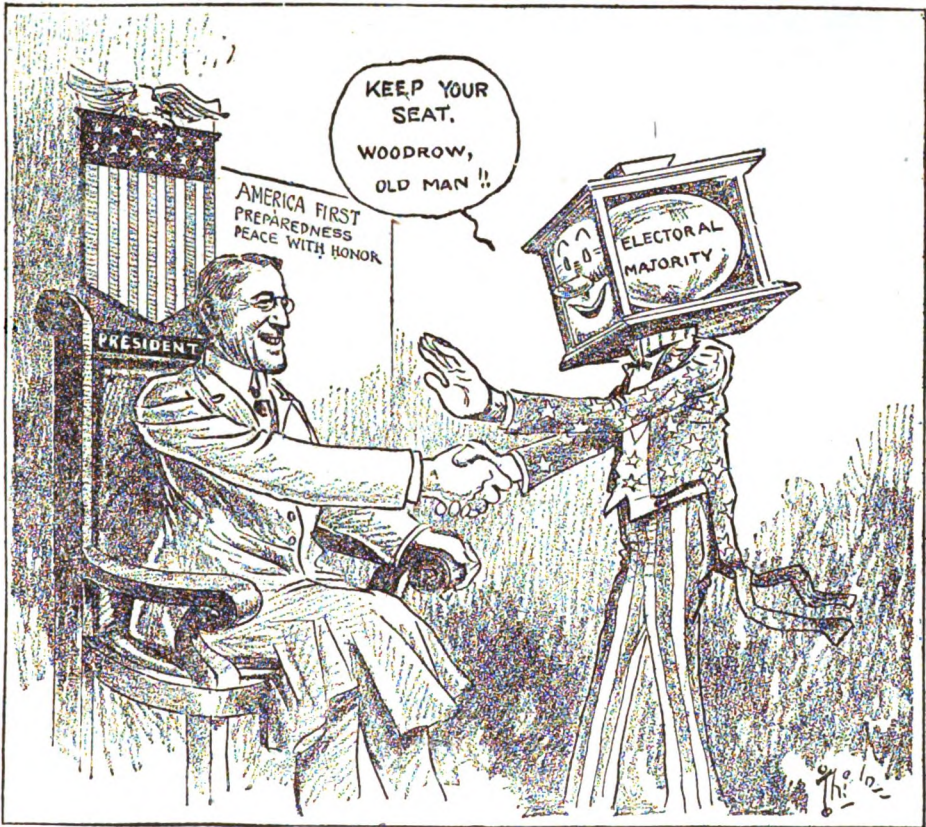
November 15.—Charles Edward Cheney, senior Bishop (Chicago) of the Reformed Episcopal Church, 80. . . . Molly Elliot Seawell, the author, 56. . . . Luis Munoz Rivera, for six years Resident Commissioner from Porto Rico to the United States. . . . Henryk Sienkiewicz, the famous Polish novelist, 71.

November 17.—John J. Enneking, the landscape painter, 76.

November 18.—Francis Marion Lyman, chief of the Twelve Apostles of the Mormon Church, 76.

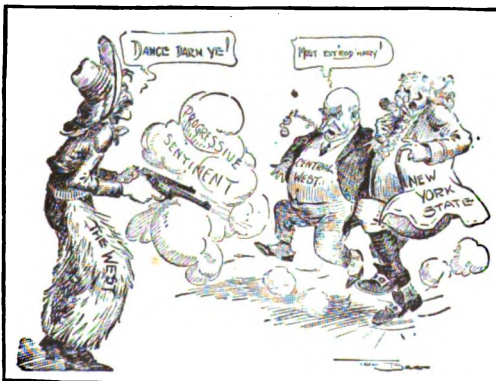
November 19.—Robert E. Lee, former Member of Congress from Pennsylvania.

CARTOONS ON THE ELECTIONS

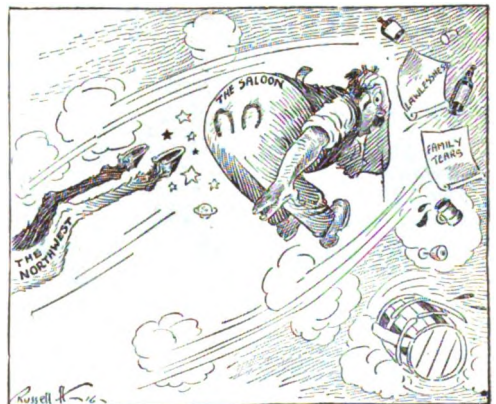


ONE GOOD TERM DESERVES ANOTHER!
From the *Daily Tribune* (Sioux City, Iowa)

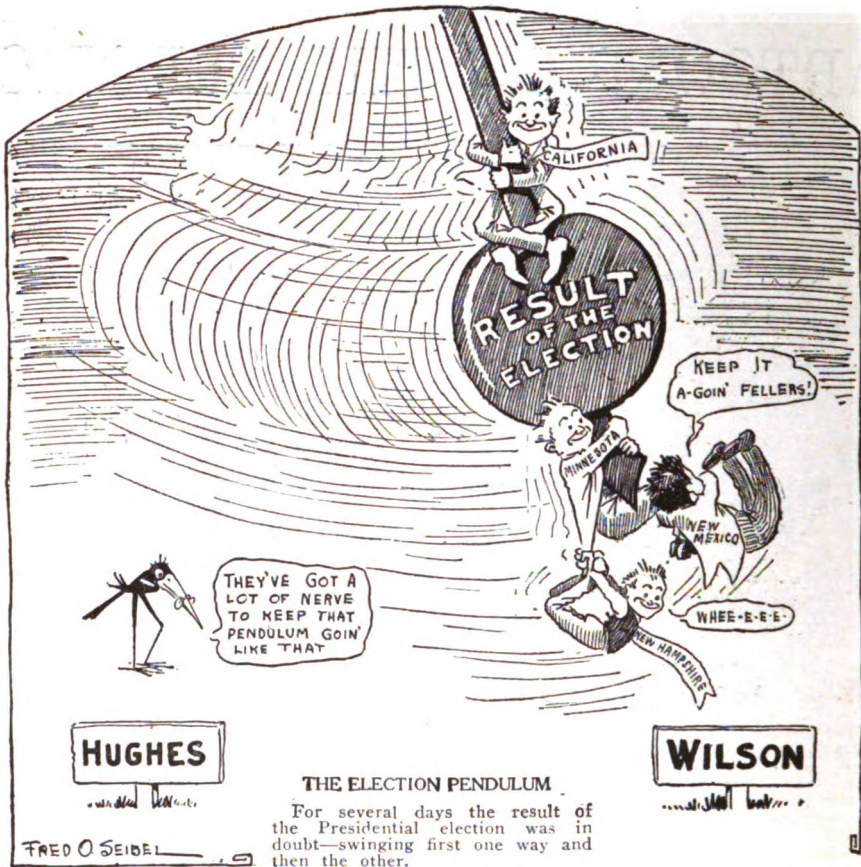
THE Presidential election was remarkable on several accounts—the suspense attending the decision, the strength developed by Wilson in the West, and the close vote in a number of States. Additional features



THE NEW ERA
From the *Sun* (Baltimore)



INTO THE MIDDLE OF NEXT WEEK!
From the *Prohibitionist National Daily* (Westerville, O.)



From the Knickerbocker-Press (Albany, N. Y.)

of interest were the progress made by prohibition and the increase in the woman vote.



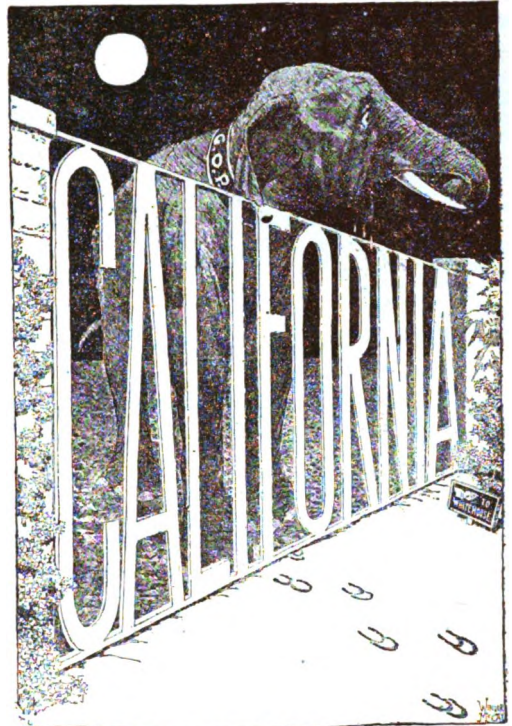
CAN BRYAN HITCH THE DONKEY TO THE WATER WAGON? From the *World* (New York)



From the *Evening Ledger* (Philadelphia)



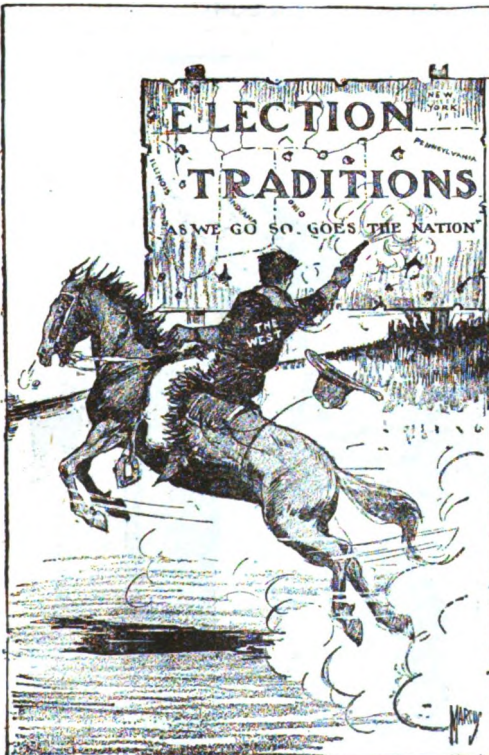
CARRYING THE BANNER BACK TO HIGH GROUND
From the *News* (Dayton, Ohio)



© 1916 International News Service

THE GOLDEN GATE
From the *American* (New York)

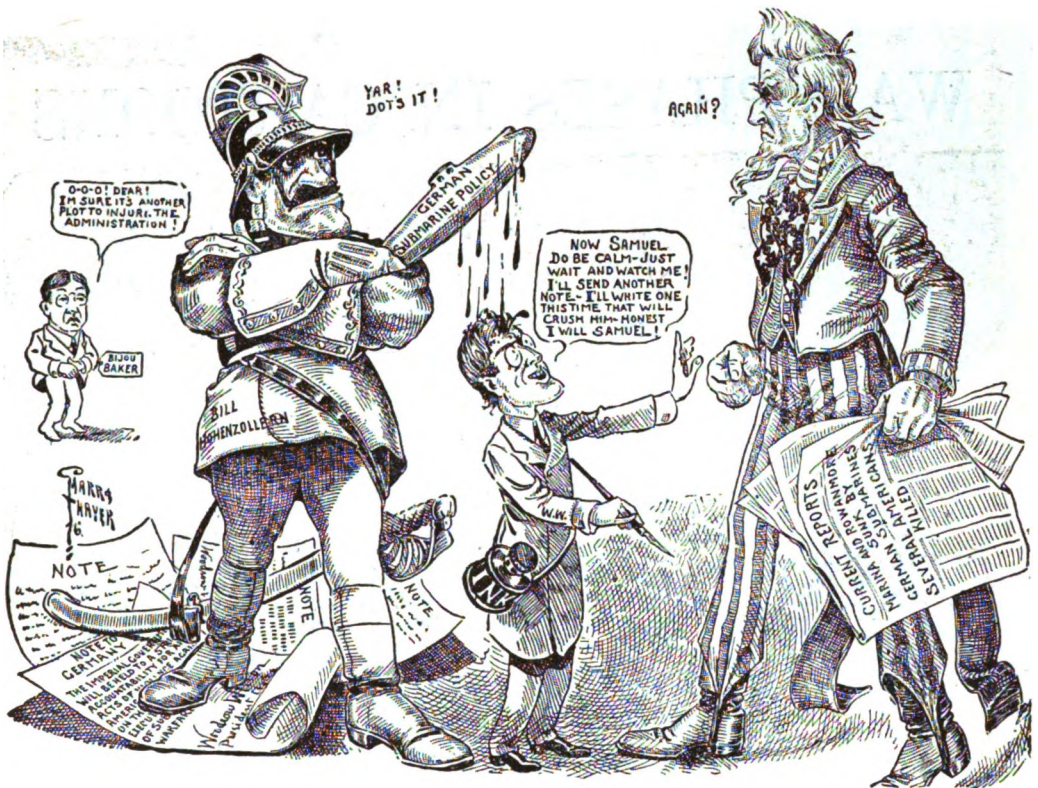
The election of ex-Governor Cox, of Ohio, to fill again the State executive chair is duly celebrated in a cartoon from Mr. Cox's newspaper, the *Dayton News*. California achieved a position of unusual importance by



SHOT TO PIECES
From the *Times* (New York)



DOESN'T THIS SEEM STRANGE?
From the *Constitution* (Atlanta)



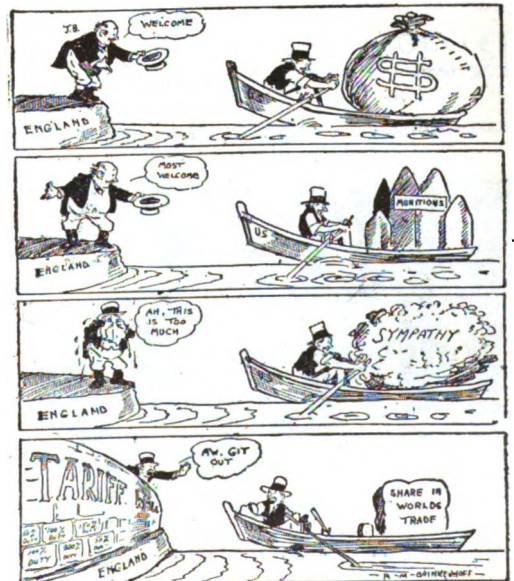
From the Kennebec Journal (Augusta, Me.)

The cartoons on this page deal with the ever-recurring submarine question with

Germany, and with the trade boycott complications which have arisen with England.



"OUCH"—FROM UNCLE SAM
(Apropos of John Bull's trade boycott)
From the Chronicle (San Francisco)



© 1916, S. S. McClure.

BRITISH APPRECIATION
From the Mail (New York)

WAR PHASES IN CARTOONS



ASKING A FAVOR

THE KAISER: "I say, Wilson, my friend, I shall be extremely obliged if—"

You will kindly do your best to get me peace on reasonable terms"

From *News of the World* (London)

RUMORS of the Kaiser's attempts to secure President Wilson's good offices in behalf of peace continue, as do also German submarine attacks on American ships—

a rather incongruous situation, as the London cartoonist points out above.



"THE FALLING LEAVES"—THIRD YEAR

YOUNG WILLIE: "I say, Dad, the leaves are beginning to fall again. It's the third year, and we aren't home yet!"

(Recalling the German Emperor's promise to his troops, early in the war, that they would be home when the leaves fall)

From the *Westminster Gazette* (London)



VICTORY CHANGES SIDES

GERMANY: "Come back!"

VICTORY: "Never!"

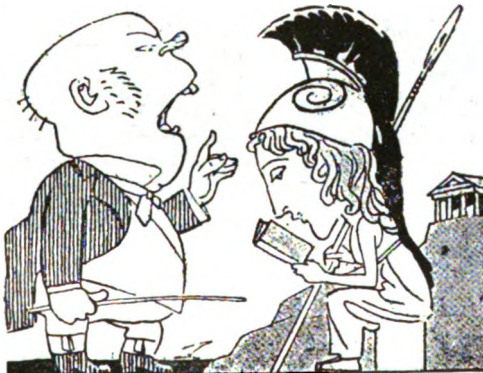
From *Echo de Paris* (Paris)



HOW THE MODERN ACHILLES (KING CONSTANTINE OF GREECE) IS BEING PERSUADED TO COME OUT OF HIS TENT

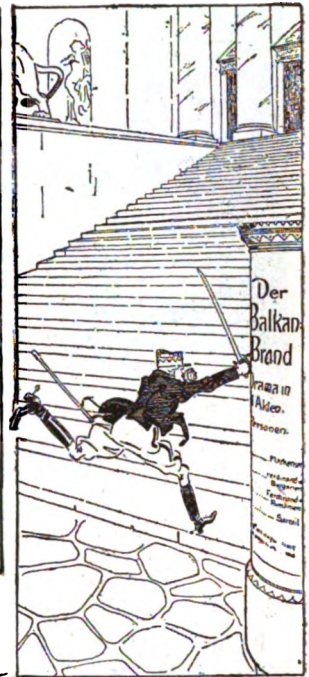
From *De Amsterdamer* (Amsterdam)

The Dutch cartoonist Braakensiek is especially apt in picturing King Constantine as the modern Achilles, whom the Entente Allies are now forcibly persuading to enter the fight. These drastic methods of dealing with Greece are further illustrated—according to the German view—by the little cartoon



THE GODDESS ATHENE (GREECE) FINDS IT DIFFICULT, EVEN UNDER COMPULSION, TO LEARN ENGLISH

From *Kladderadatsch* © (Berlin)



TOO LATE!

GENERAL SARRAIL: The devil, the Balkan drama is already finished, and I was supposed to appear in the first act!

From *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin)

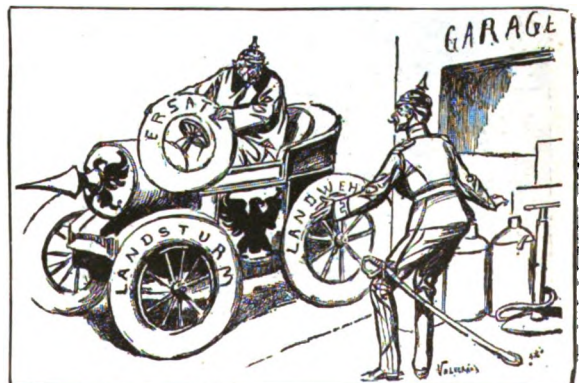
from *Kladderadatsch*, in which John Bull appears as the burly schoolmaster of the goddess Athene.

The Balkan play—according to the *Lustige Blätter* cartoon—is about ended, and General Sarraill's long-expected northward advance from Salonica comes too late.



HINDENBURG, THE SAVIOUR OF GERMAN HOPES

From *La Victoire* (Paris)



FALKENHAYN: "YOUR MAJESTY, THERE ARE NO MORE TIRES (ARMY RESERVES) TO BE HAD"

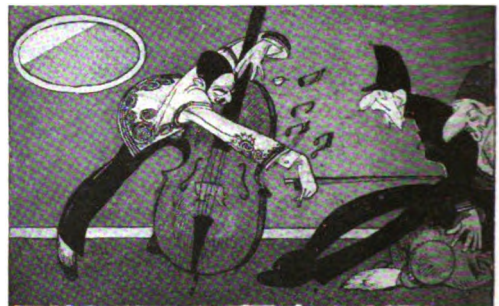
From *Le Pele-Mele* (Paris)



"I GET MORE THAN THAT OUT OF IT!"
The French soldier's remark as he looks at a poster announcing a French war loan at five per cent
From *Le Rire* © (Paris)



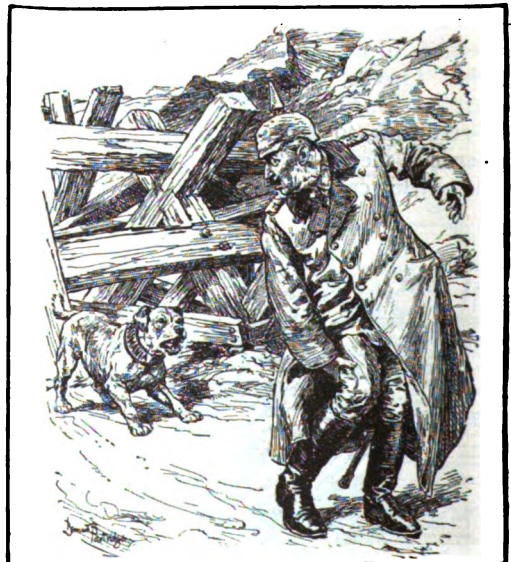
THE FIFTH GERMAN WAR LOAN
GERMAN MICHEL: "Again my apple tree has borne a very handsome crop"
From *Nebelspalter* (Zurich)



THE BEAUTIFUL ROUMANIAN SERENADE—AND THE LAST NOTE From *Novy Satirikon* (Petrograd)



MAKING POLAND INDEPENDENT
THE PRUSSIAN (to Poland): "I tell you, it matters not what you say or do, what you wish or don't wish—you have got to be independent!"
From *Mucha* (Moscow)



THE CONQUEROR OF THE SMALLER NATIONS
KAISER: "Himmel! I thought he was going to be quite a little dog!"

From *Punch* © (London)

MR. LOW'S SUCCESSOR

THERE is always opportunity for the men who are prepared. If this applies to men who are seeking their own fortunes, or planning to realize personal ambitions, it is even more true of those who are willing to render unselfish service for the well-being of the community. It is thus that men are found to fill the places of those men of light and leading whose loss by death often seems—for some cause or institution—a calamity beyond repair. No other man can exactly fill the vacancy caused by the death of the Hon. Seth Low. He was one of the most useful citizens of the metropolis of New York, and one of the most representative of the trusted men of training, experience, and character that we of our day are proud to call our typical Americans.

Mr. Low had found a work for which he was peculiarly fitted in the presidency of the National Civic Federation. That body of men has endeavored, through the sixteen years of its existence, to aid in maintaining the spirit of harmony and coöperation among the human forces of our economic life. It has endeavored to deal broadly and justly with many large practical subjects. It has lent its best effort to the settlement of actual difficulties between Labor and Capital. Its executive committee is made up, in equal numbers, of men representing the general public, men representing employers, and men representing wage-earners. The first president of the Civic Federation was Mark Hanna, the sincerity of whose devotion to its best purposes was doubted by no one who was acquainted with the energy and the zeal of his efforts in his closing years. Seth Low's disinterestedness, his sense of justice, his altruism, and his patriotism, had increasing recognition to the very day of his death. If he had the respect of the captains of industry, it is not less true that he had the unshaken confidence of the leaders of organized labor.

The man who now succeeds to the presidency of the National Civic Federation is the Hon. V. Everit Macy. It is true of Mr. Macy, as of all sound men, that he is most highly appreciated where he is best known. He has never acquired any superficial fame. Incidentally it may be said



HON. V. EVERIT MACY, THE NEW PRESIDENT OF
THE NATIONAL CIVIC FEDERATION

that he has always been a member of the executive committee of the National Civic Federation, has been chairman of its New York State Conciliation Committee, and with quiet efficiency has done much to promote this part of the Federation's work while also serving on committees having to do with the control of public utilities, and with other questions of practical business.

But meanwhile he has been known in New York, and in the great adjoining county of Westchester, in many other relationships. From his youth he has considered himself a trustee of his large inherited wealth, for objects pertaining to the public welfare. He has sought to associate knowledge with generous impulse, so that good deeds might also be wise and of enduring benefit. Thus he has had a large part in the upbuilding of

educational institutions, of such agencies as the University Settlement, of provident loan societies, and of other public agencies that it would take much space merely to enumerate.

Mr. Macy is a graduate of Columbia University, is an architect and engineer by professional knowledge, is a practical business man of large experience, and is a farmer widely known among the successful breeders of Guernsey cattle. His home and farm are in Westchester County, near Ossining. Three years ago he was persuaded to run for the not very attractive office of County Superintendent of the Poor. The position had always been in county politics, and it was argued that a rich man like Macy ought not to take the job away from some aspiring servant of one or the other party machine, who needed the salary and perquisites.

It took a hard fight to elect Mr. Macy, and after that it took a year or two for the variegated county of Westchester, with several hundred thousand people, to understand what Macy was trying to do. What he actually did accomplish, and what further plans he has in mind with the overwhelming approval of the public, is a separate story—a story about the problem of administering the poor law in counties. A recent number of the *Survey* tells the story well, and we have summed it up among our "Leading Articles of the Month" (see page 665). We ask our readers to study that page or two, as associated with these remarks.

When Mr. Macy took the office of Superintendent of the Poor, he resigned from the boards of directors of perhaps thirty or forty business enterprises and educational or philanthropic institutions. He went at his problem theoretically as well as practically. Last year his health failed, and he spent some months in California, with the result of thorough recuperation. Some men would have sought a longer period of ease and leisure. But these are strenuous times, when real men are up and doing, and contributing their energies to the work of the world. Mr. Macy understands the art of administration, because he is a successful man of large affairs. It is a high tribute to his management of the county poor house and infirmary to say that he had so organized it that he could be spared for a number of weeks.

Last month Mr. Macy was elected for another term. In a county where the rivalry between Republican and Democratic politicians has always been intense, and

where all other county offices are still treated as the rightful spoils of victory, he was the candidate of Republicans, Democrats, and Progressives, his name appearing in all party columns. This was a rare tribute, but highly deserved. Mr. Macy had taken a thankless office, had brought system and wise economy into its affairs, had applied the best experience of reformers and advanced students of the problems of poverty and dependence, and thus had gained the approval of leaders of all parties, classes, and creeds. He has shown young men of means and leisure how to lay hold of some public task in their own town or county and, through sheer excellence of service and through practical results, to win honor and fame. To be sure, honor and fame were not what Mr. Macy was seeking.

The combined forces of capital and the amalgamated forces of labor seem to be getting themselves in array for some great tug of war. Mr. Samuel Gompers, head of the American Federation of Labor, is vice-president of the National Civic Federation, of which Mr. V. Everit Macy has now become president. On the executive committee of the Federation are the heads of the railway brotherhoods, in the interest of whom President Wilson persuaded Congress, before its adjournment nearly three months ago, to pass the famous so-called "eight-hour" law. The sixteen labor members include a number of other presidents of important trades unions. The sixteen representatives of the employing class include, among other leaders in the business world, several heads of railway systems. The sixteen men who represent the public include William Howard Taft, Elihu Root, Andrew Carnegie, and prominent publicists, educational leaders, and economists.

In this group representing the public, Mr. Macy's name has stood for many years. It is enough to say that he has the hearty support and personal confidence of every member of the three groups.

It is worth while also to add that there has been no failure within the Civic Federation to maintain relationships of respect and esteem. Mr. Hanna worked harmoniously with the labor leaders, and they in turn were his strong friends. Mr. Low was a friend and supporter of all those aims of organized labor that contemplated higher standards and better conditions of family life and American citizenship. Above all, he stood for fair ways of settling difficulties, and was a fa-

mous industrial arbitrator. Mr. Macy brings to his office an impartial attitude and a trained sense of social justice, a warm sympathy for his fellow men, and a belief, based on much experience, in the practices of conciliation and of settlement by patient conference or by fair arbitration.

The Civic Federation, under Mr. Macy's presidency, with the efficient aid of Mr. Ralph M. Easley as chairman of the executive council (not to mention the names of the distinguished men who are chairmen of the permanent departments of study and effort in the regular work of the Federation), is facing the call which comes to it to aid in working out the most immediate problems now pending in the world of capital and labor. A committee of the Federation, in 1913, drafted the measure which became the law known as the Newlands Federal Media-

tion Act. Senator Newlands is chairman of a joint commission now inquiring into the whole subject of railway regulation and control. The machinery of the Newlands Act did not suffice to meet the situation that arose some months ago between the railroads and the brotherhoods of the men operating trains. The Federation will endeavor to assist in the solution of the complicated problems that have now to be dealt with.

This indicates only one of many activities in which the Federation must be engaged in the near future. Its Welfare Department and its Woman's Department have already done much to improve the condition of workers of both sexes engaged in industry and commerce. The Federation stands for peace, order, and progress; and its principles are well represented in the past record and consistent attitude of its new President.—A. S.

BEVERIDGE'S "MARSHALL"

IN the list of American jurists, there is no name that approaches John Marshall's in eminence. Marshall was Chief Justice of the United States from the closing weeks of John Adams' Presidency, in the early part of the year 1801, until his death in 1835. The American Constitution is much more than a written document, on the one hand, or a practical scheme of government on the other. It is a great system that to be understood must be studied legally, historically, and in its working as affected by all sorts of human conditions. The place of the Supreme Court, as the majestic balance wheel in the continuous association of the States as a federal entity, had not been definitely established in the first twelve years of our experience under the arrangement that began with Washington's Presidency. The constructive period of our Constitutional law, and the evolution of the prestige and authority of the Supreme Court, began with the Chief Justiceship of John Marshall.

The greatness of Marshall is universally conceded. Of all eminent Virginians, he was most antagonistic to Jefferson; yet the admirers of the sage of Monticello and the followers of the Jefferson tradition long ago ceased to cavil at the name of Marshall, whose greatness they have accepted as unquestioningly as that of Washington. All

this being true, it is somewhat surprising that we have not known more about the personality of so preëminent a figure. We have had no adequate biography; no verification of data regarding Marshall's early life; no critical or convincing interpretation of his character as a man or his public attitudes and convictions; no final analysis of his intellectual qualities and powers.

It is, therefore, an event of no ordinary importance in the field of historical research and literature that a *Life of John Marshall*¹ should appear at the present time that fills in the most remarkable way the need of a definitive biography that will stand unquestioned for all time. It had been an aim of Senator Beveridge, when a young member of the Indianapolis bar, to write a life of Marshall. The taxing duties of professional work and then of public life had caused the postponement of the project. Such delay was fortunate, because this particular kind of work cannot be well done in fractions of time snatched from the days or nights of a life filled with the incessant activities of a United States Senator, or a practising lawyer. A public man may make brilliant incursions in the field of letters. His comments upon one phase or another of his-

¹ *The Life of John Marshall.* By Albert J. Beveridge. Houghton, Mifflin. 2 vols. 1126 pp. Net \$8.

tory or politics may have permanent importance. But there is a kind of historical work that can only be performed by the competent man who makes it his major task, laying aside other things and not grudging the expenditure of all the time of one day after another through consecutive weeks and months and years. It was thus that Mr. James Ford Rhodes was able to give us his wise and judicious volumes covering a more recent period of our history.

Senator Beveridge's opportunity came—as many a man's best chances present themselves—through what to his friends appeared to be a stroke of bad fortune. His defeat for reelection was a disappointment, since it was thought to have interrupted, and perhaps ended, a striking public career just as it was becoming fully mature and giving promise of increased usefulness and power in the Senate. The reaction in the middle of the Taft Administration that brought the Democrats into power, making Woodrow Wilson Governor of New Jersey, gave Indiana a Democratic legislature; and Mr. Beveridge failed to win the third term that the voters of the State would have given him by an emphatic majority if Senators had been chosen then, as they are now, by direct vote of the people. This defeat gave him the desired opportunity, and he began his researches. Although Mr. Beveridge was prominent in the Progressive campaign of 1912; and although in 1914 he took time to go to Europe, confer with statesmen of belligerent countries and write a book (contributing several articles at that time to this REVIEW), he was determined not to allow either American politics or law practise, or the world upheavals of the great war, to absorb his time and thought in such a way as to cause further postponement of the projected biography of John Marshall.

Mr. Beveridge, in a book on Russia's advance in Northern Asia, in many speeches and addresses, and in his recent volume "What Is Back of the War," had shown an unusual power of exposition and the gift of a terse and cogent style. But the modern methods of historical research involve a kind of work in which Mr. Beveridge, presumably, had not been trained. His industry and his sense of thoroughness, however, led him to the mastery of these new and critical ways of sifting documents and materials, and of prosecuting inquiries by driving straight to every kind of source, however obscure, for verifying a fact. In this work Mr. Beveridge was wise enough to avail himself of

the constant aid of that group of scholars and experts now most familiar with our sources for the re-writing of American history.

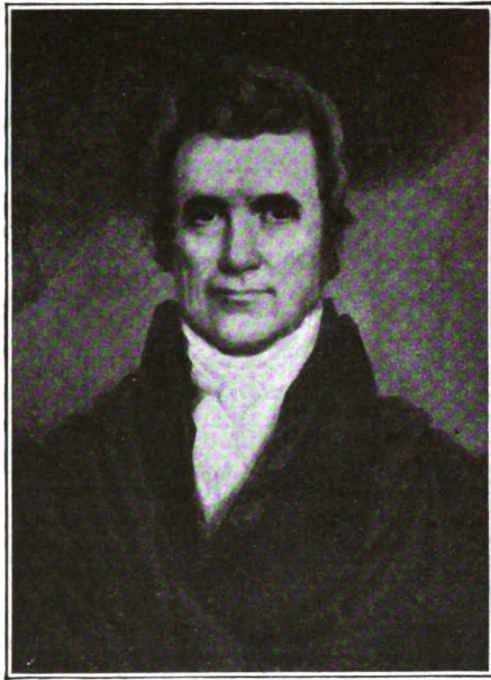
He has not been content, therefore, to set up for us his own conception, and to construct a vivile human Marshall to meet his own views of what Marshall ought to have been. He has taken the trouble to find out what manner of man Marshall really was. Having done this, however, Mr. Beveridge has shown his own great ability in that he makes us see and realize the John Marshall whom he has discovered for himself, and has so thoroughly humanized.

It is plain to see that the "Life of John Marshall" is interpreted for us by a man who has himself known first the mainsprings of political life and action in one of our typical States, and has then known the conflicting motives that sway the party leaders—the lawmakers and the executives—in Government circles at Washington. Mr. Beveridge, for example, gives us a better understanding of the change in James Madison's political and party attitude than we have had before; but this is because one experienced party leader can understand another better than the critical historian who has not himself lived the life of a politician and a practical leader.

Mr. Beveridge reconstructs for us the society of colonial Virginia—the people, the communities whether old Williamsburg or Richmond, the agricultural conditions, the politics, the State-making, and, above all, he brings to life the leading personalities of that day, so that his two volumes are vividly interesting from the first page to the last. Furthermore, they are cumulative in their relation not only to their central figure but also to the great affairs in which Marshall was destined to play his distinguished part.

It is not until the year 1800 that Marshall takes his place as a member of Congress, soon thereafter yielding to Adams' demand that he take the portfolio of State. It was a critical time in our relations to France and England, and Marshall became at once a real Secretary of State, upholding America's neutral rights. Then, as suddenly and to the surprise of everybody—though to the general satisfaction—he was appointed to be Chief Justice of the United States. For some weeks he held both places, actively, drawing only one salary.

Marshall was forty-five years old. He had been getting ready for many years, and had now, within a single year, emerged as



JOHN MARSHALL AS CHIEF JUSTICE
(The frontispiece of Mr. Beveridge's second volume is
a reproduction in color of the Jarvis painting)

one of the two foremost figures of our national life. At the moment when his own party, the Federalist, was going down forever—at the moment when Jefferson was assuming the Presidency—John Marshall appeared on the bench as the great survivor in power of the group of constructive statesmen who had launched the new Constitution. The Supreme Court under his molding hand was to take a tremendous part in shaping national destinies. It is at this point that Mr. Beveridge ends the two volumes now offered us. No better chapter of American history, it might well be asserted, has ever been written than Mr. Beveridge's concluding one, which describes the last ten months of John Adams' administration and explains Marshall's elevation to the bench. In eighty pages Mr. Beveridge gives us a chapter that holds the reader spellbound, if he cares at all for American history and politics.

It is not revealed to us, in the preface or in any announcement of the publishers, what Mr. Beveridge expects to do with the remaining thirty-five years of John Marshall's life. It would seem that there ought to be at least two more volumes, relating the story of our Constitutional development in close association with current political life, and

with reference to those shaping influences of American growth and progress that affected the necessary thinking of Marshall as of all other contemporary statesmen and jurists. We have had studies of Marshall's great decisions from the legal standpoint; and we have had political histories of the administrations of Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, John Quincy Adams, and Andrew Jackson. But we have not had the story of that first third of the century from the standpoint of the creative and dominant mentality of the Chief Justice who sat on the bench through nine administrations. Mr. Beveridge's second volume ends with the following sentence: "Thus it was that, unobtrusively and in modest guise, Marshall took that station which, as long as he lived, he was to make the chief of all among the high places in the Government of the American Nation."

Thus Marshall's biographer has created for us, afresh and with accurate lines, the attractive, virile, splendidly American personality of John Marshall. It remains for him now to give us the career of the Chief Justice, his masterly work in detail and as a whole, and the relation of that work to the fabric of our national life that was to be so terribly tested in the generation following Marshall's long period.—A. S.

GERMANY MAKES A NEW BID FOR PEACE BY BATTLE

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS

I. POLITICS AND STRATEGY

DESPITE interesting incidents in the West, despite the French victory at Verdun, one of the most brilliant local achievements of the war, the campaigns in the Near East continued in November to hold the attention of military observers of the world. Indeed, the value of the Rumanian campaign was enhanced by developments of the political order, which served to demonstrate the great value that the Germans now attached to this operation.

My readers are familiar with the analyses I have made in other articles of the Verdun campaign. The German operation at Verdun was a military undertaking, with very clear military aims. It sought first to pierce the French lines, then to pound through, and finally to obtain a circumscribed local advantage, the possession of the ruins of Verdun. But beyond all else, Verdun was an effort to crush the spirit of the French people and demonstrate to them and to the world that Germany could not be beaten.

Now the Rumanian campaign has similar purposes. Count Apponyi, in a notable public speech recently, indicated the value of Rumanian operations in the eyes of the Central Powers, when he said that Rumania would soon be crushed, and the enemies of the Central Powers, seeing in the defeat of Rumania the proof that their own hopes and purposes could not be realized, would at last listen to peace propositions. Bethmann-Hollweg opened the way for such proposals by the frank assertion that he had never officially considered the annexation of Belgium.

In a word, Germany, and Austria as well, see in the Rumanian campaign the way to win peace, to win a peace which shall be satisfactory to them without being too onerous for their enemies. They are fighting in Rumania to convince their enemies that the Central Powers cannot be conquered. They have sought to make the Rumanian campaign a supreme moral demonstration of their invincibility. They have given to the

campaign the moral value they sought to attach to the Verdun campaign, when they expected to take Verdun. And they could not wholly subtract that moral value, even when they failed.

However one may differ with the German conclusions in the matter of the Rumanian operation, it is necessary to accept some of their premises if we are to understand what they are aiming at and why the Rumanian operation has become so important in their eyes. To do this the easiest illustration at hand is found in the Verdun effort of last spring.

When German high command planned the present campaign against Rumania it reasoned something like this: We have lost the initiative in the East, the West and in the South, along the Italian front. Verdun has demonstrated the folly of any new offensive in the West. Our Austrian allies have barely been put on their feet and they are not in condition to make a new and colossal effort against Russia. The failure of the offensive in the Trentino abolishes all hope in this direction, given our present resources. Our defeats and losses on all fronts have led our own people and neutral nations to take a pessimistic view of our condition. The entrance of Rumania has convinced the world that we are going to be beaten.

Having thus reasoned out the situation, German high command proposed this solution. The eyes of the world are upon Rumania; they expect to see the invasion of Hungary and the collapse of our ally. If we can strike down Rumania, as we have struck down Belgium and Serbia, if we can get to Bucharest as we have reached Brussels and Belgrade, if we can demonstrate that the Allies are unable to save their latest ally, then our own people and the world will no longer believe that we are going to lose the war, that our condition is desperate. On the contrary, we shall restore our position in their eyes, and our opponents, already tiring of the war—that is, the people, not their leaders—will be ready to listen to reason.

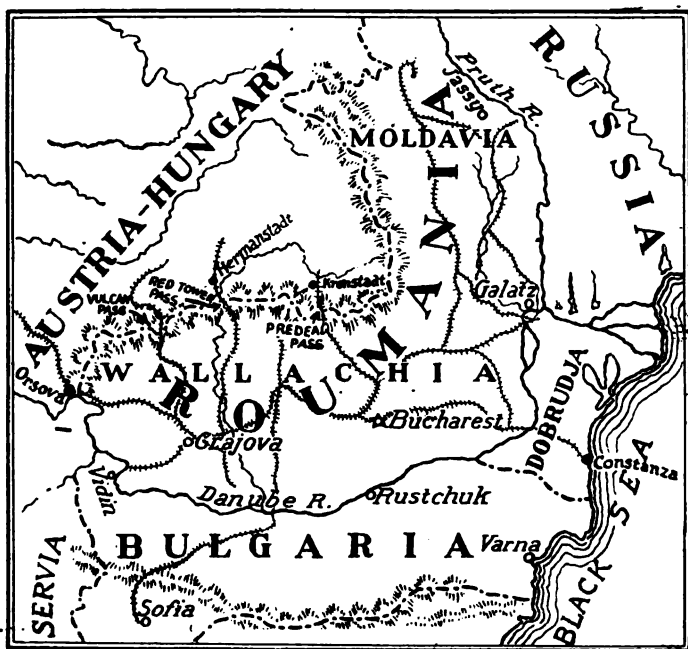
And the fact is, so the German high command reasoned, we can hope with those resources at our hand to crush Rumania. We have reserves, not enough for another Verdun or a new drive toward Moscow, but we have sufficient reserves, with a great train of artillery, to insure a quick and sweeping success, such as our political necessities demand, over the Rumanians, who do not number much more than 300,000, who have no heavy artillery to speak of, who are still green troops, who have made the greatest blunder of the war by going into Transylvania instead of attacking Bulgaria before we could help our Balkan ally.

On the military side this campaign against Rumania will abolish a new peril; it will, if it succeeds, shorten our line enormously; it will put us in possession of the great stores of grain Rumania possesses, of the oil wells, which will furnish us with the petroleum we lack; but on the political side we shall win even more, we shall probably win peace.

II. HOW IT HAS WORKED OUT

Last month I indicated the extent of the German success in the earlier phase of the campaign against Rumania. All that the German high command had expected had, up to that time, come to pass. Rumania had been defeated and invaded. The most promising moment of the whole war for the Allies had been spoiled and the first weeks of the third year of the struggle witnessed a change in the opinion of neutrals all over the world. Expectation of German defeat within a brief time gave place to new admiration for German efficiency and fresh confidence in German military power.

In August there was a well-defined belief all over the world, outside of Germany and Austria, that the Allies were winning. In November this conviction had disappeared, there was pessimism in Allied capitals, and there was frank skepticism in quarters where Allied expectations had won recent credence. Out of great Allied opportunities Germany had drawn a military advantage



MAP SHOWING RUMANIAN RAILROADS AND MOUNTAIN PASSES

for herself that can hardly be exaggerated.

Yet, looking at the military situation, as it stands in the last week of November, it is plain that Germany has not yet achieved the great success which is necessary to crown her operations, having regard for her own viewpoint. She has continued to advance into Rumania by the valley of the Alt and by the railroad which comes south from Kronstadt to Bucharest. She is approaching Campolung, an important Rumanian railroad town at the edge of the plain. But she is no longer making rapid advances and the thing that happened at Verdun is happening in the new field—she is being called upon to make high payment for relatively small gains.

In a word, Rumania has repaired her earlier mistakes. Her troops are now fighting well; Berlin concedes this. They have been reinforced by Russian armies, whose strength has begun to tell. As it stands now it is still likely that Germany will ultimately get to Bucharest, but it is less likely than it was a month ago. And there is no longer any chance that she will get there by a swift and comparatively cheap thrust. She is keeping on, as she kept on at Verdun, because of the value that, by her own action, has attached to the campaign in the eyes of the world, but the highest conceivable profit has now escaped her.

If you look at any map of Rumania you will see that there wanders from west to

east through the Wallachian Plain, half-way between the Danube and the Transylvanian Alps, a single railroad which connects Bucharest with Orsova and crosses a large number of railroads which go north from the Danube to or across the Transylvanian frontier. This railroad is the key of the whole Rumanian campaign.

If the Germans, coming south of the mountains, can get to this railroad, at Pitesci, for example, where it is nearest to Transylvania, they will cut off all of the Rumanian troops west of the point they reach, unless these troops are recalled in time. If they are recalled, then half of Wallachia will have to be abandoned to the invader. What the Belgrade-Constantinople railroad is in the problem to the south, this Orsova-Bucharest railroad is in the northern problem.

But the Germans are still a long way from Pitesci; they will not be there a month hence unless they accelerate their speed; they are beginning to show signs of a lack of men; the bad weather seems to have interfered with their munitioning, and, as they retreat, the Rumanians are getting nearer to their bases. Still, it is necessary to emphasize the fact that the German drive on this front has not yet been stopped and the Germans are confident, the Allies fearful, that a great Rumanian disaster impends.

On the other hand, the campaign in the Moldavian half of Rumania, the fraction of the country between Russia and Transylvania, has reached a state of deadlock, while Russian reinforcements have actually turned the tide and short dashes into Transylvania have been made. No progress of any importance has been made by the Germans on this front, and there are signs that the Russian pressure here has seriously interfered with the operations of Falkenhayn to the south and west. A month ago it looked as if the Germans would be able to get through on the east front as well as the south. Now this seems no longer likely, and their advance is rigidly limited to the northern front between the railroads which enter Rumania, one south of Kronstadt, the other south of Petroseny, the first using the Predeal Pass, the other the Vulcan Pass. Between these two passes are several others, notably the Red Tower Gorge, also used by the Germans, but the front between these two railroads is the main operative front of Falkenhayn, measured by November operations.

As I correct these proofs, on November 21, the dispatches report very great German progress south of the Vulcan Pass and to-

ward Crajova, which is the point where the railroad coming south out of the Vulcan Pass cuts the Bucharest-Orsova line—the backbone of Rumania. Such an advance carries a very grave threat to all the Rumanian troops west of the railroad, they may be cut off and captured, if their line of retreat and communications is thus cut. Here is the possibility of a real disaster.

III. IN THE DOBRUDJA

Meantime, if Falkenhayn has managed to keep on, at a reduced pace, to be sure, Mackensen has not only ceased advancing, but has retreated a considerable distance and has been several times reported heavily defeated and in flight toward the Bucharest-Constanza railroad. Here is a very great change from last month, when the problem seemed to be the problem of Rumania caught between the closing jaws of a German trap, with Falkenhayn in the north and Mackensen in the south acting as the jaws.

What has happened to Mackensen remains hidden in a fog of official reticence. We know that he has retreated toward the railroad, that he has evacuated much territory north of the railroad and has given over the effort to pursue and destroy the Rumanian and Russian armies he defeated in October. We know that a new Russian commander, Sahkaroff, who contributed much to the great Russian victories of last spring and summer, is operating against him, but more precise details fail us.

One circumstance, however, claims attention. There have been several reports of Rumanian thrusts across the Danube in the rear of Mackensen. If the Rumanians and the Russians could get troops across the river in Mackensen's rear his position would be desperate, because he is already enclosed on three sides by the Danube and the Black Sea. A Russian army in his rear between the Black Sea and the Danube would be exactly like a cork in a bottle and Mackensen would be inside the bottle. No one expects such a turn, but it is clear that the threat of it might explain his reported retirement.

Another explanation, even more plausible, is that he has been compelled to lend troops to the Bulgars, fighting to save Monastir, and that the Allied offensive from Salonica, which I shall discuss in a moment, has already helped Rumania by drawing off the pressure from the south. If this be true, we shall see Mackensen standing on the defensive, hereafter, holding the gap between



Photo by Central News Photo Service

GENERAL VON MACKENSEN, LEADER OF THE TEUTON'S CAMPAIGN IN THE BALKANS
(A new photograph showing General von Mackensen (center) and members of his staff in the field)



by International Film Service

GENERAL VLADIMIR SAKHAROFF
In command of the Russian forces opposed to the German and Bulgarian Armies under Mackensen

Dec.—4



Photo by Central News Photo Service

GENERAL BERTHOLET, LEADER OF RUMANIAN FORCES
(A recent snapshot of the French commander of the Rumanian army)

the Danube and the sea, which is the natural route for any Russian invasion of Bulgaria.

Conceivably Mackensen's part in the German plan has been fulfilled. It may be that he was used solely to make a demonstration drawing off Rumanian troops from the Transylvania front until Germany could get Falkenhayn into the field. If so his success is beyond praise, and he has, in addition, achieved a local advantage of no small value in cutting the Bucharest-Constanza railroad and thus crippling Rumania by depriving her of one of the very few roads of communication with her Russian ally. In addition, Mackensen has saved Bulgaria not alone from invasion but from the threat of invasion from the north and restored to the Bulgars—for the time being, at least,—the territory taken from them by Rumania in the Second Balkan War. The moral and political effect of this service is tremendous.

As it stands we cannot know whether Mackensen's task is performed or whether we shall see him soon endeavoring to repeat his famous passage of the Danube a year ago and drive north to join hands with Falkenhayn. We must recognize the possibility of this. But we must also recognize the possibility that a Rumanian thrust across the river in his rear will compel him to retire southward. Either is possible, but neither is very likely, considering the difficulties.

In November a French commander, General Berthelot, and Russian armies and generals, succeeded in bracing up the Rumanian defense, and in absolutely removing the menaces in the Dobrudja and in Moldavia, where the invaders have retired, without quite succeeding in stopping the main thrust of Falkenhayn. Because of this failure Rumania remains in very real peril, but the chances of salvation have increased, both because of local conditions and outside aid, and because of the Monastir campaign of Sarraill's Salonica army far off to the south.

I do not believe that we have seen the crest of the German effort in Rumania. I think we shall see very desperate fighting in this field in December. Given the political value that the campaign has for the Germans and Austrians, given their faith that a shining success will win the peace they desire, I am satisfied that they will make new efforts and new sacrifices. It is the political element that now gives this campaign its real importance. The Allies have lost their big chance, Germany has saved Bulgaria and Hungary on these fronts, but it remains to be seen whether she can now crush Rumania.

Personally, I do not think the biggest possible victory in Rumania will change the political situation, so far as the Allies are concerned, just as I did not believe German success at Verdun could alter French determination. But what is important now is the fact that Germany believes it will and therefore means to achieve it.

IV. MONASTIR

The French have an expression to describe a military operation made on one front with the purpose of relieving pressure on another. They call it a *coup de ventouse*, which is, literally translated, the application of a leech. This best describes the new activity in the Balkans, the drive at Monastir. Actually the chief purpose of this drive is to relieve the pressure upon Rumania by recalling Bulgar troops from the Dobrudja to defend the Macedonian conquests of Czar Ferdinand.

We may safely say that before all else the thing in the mind of Allied High Command is to exercise such pressure upon the southern front of the Bulgarians that they will not only have to give over their invasion of Rumania, but will also be compelled to appeal to their German and Austrian allies for reinforcements, which would probably have to be taken from Falkenhayn's armies or from the reserves marked for him. In a word, just as the Germans are endeavoring to destroy Rumania, the Allies are now concentrating their attention upon Bulgaria.

Monastir, which was the chief objective of Sarraill's advance, has for the Bulgars a sentimental value, outside of the military value which it possesses for all the Central Powers equally. It dominates the portion of Macedonia which saw the rise of Bulgar power in the Balkans nine centuries ago. It was assigned to Bulgaria by the Treaty of San Stefano, returned to the Turk at the Congress of Berlin, again assigned to Bulgaria by the treaty with Serbia which preceded the First Balkan War, and lost in the Second Balkan War, which Bulgaria precipitated because Serbia refused to surrender Monastir according to agreement. The present, therefore, is the second war Bulgaria has fought for Macedonia, for Monastir, because she joined the Central Powers a year ago to reconquer what she had lost in the war with Greece and Serbia.

To lose Monastir now, and with it Ochrida and the region west of the Vardar, is to lose the chief prize of the war for which Bulgaria has been fighting. With the



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THE VARIED RACIAL TYPES AND NATIONALITIES IN THE ALLIES' BALKAN ARMIES

The cosmopolitan character of the Allied Army on the Macedonian front is well illustrated in this picture, which shows, from left to right (back row): an "Anzac," a French Senegalese, a Russian, an Indian, an Italian, and a Serbian. In the front row, left to right, are a Cretan (Greek Revolutionist), another Senegalese, a Frenchman, a French Indo Chinese, and another Cretan.

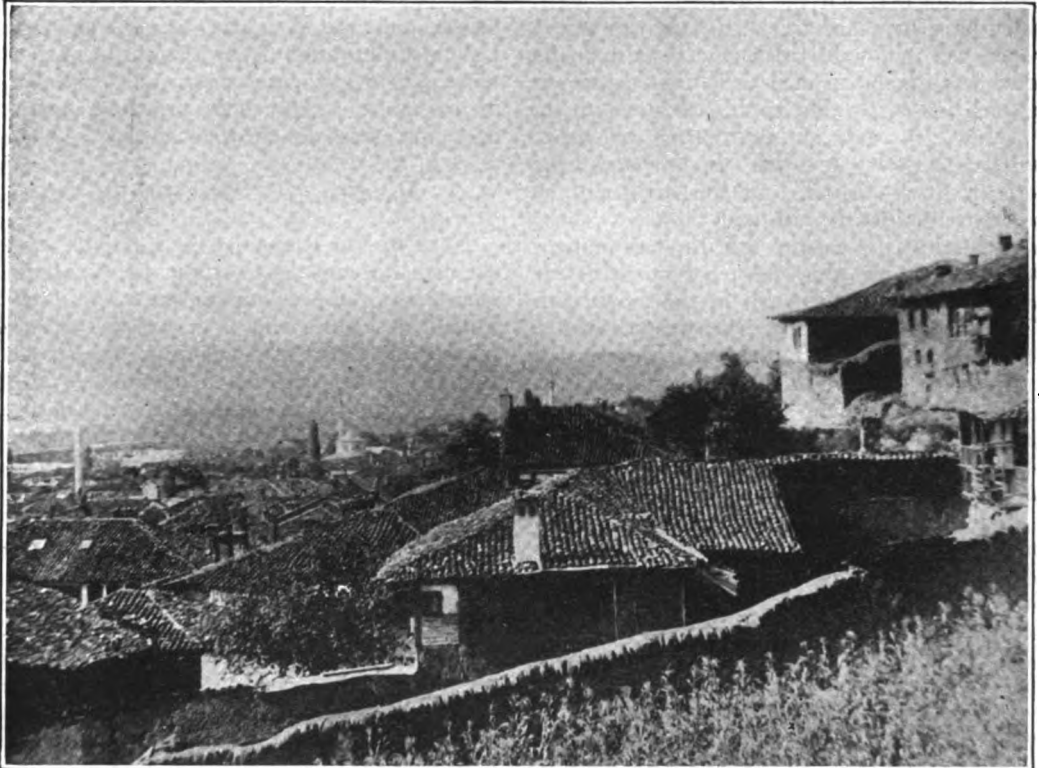


Photo by American Press Association

A VIEW OF THE CITY OF MONASTIR

Monastir, in Serbian Macedonia, was taken from the Bulgars by the united Serbian and French forces on November 19. Strategically of great value, with its strong defenses and its situation at the cross roads of important highways, it was taken from the Turks by the Serbians in November, 1912, was seized by the Bulgar-Teuton forces under Mackensen in November, 1915, and now again the Serbian colors fly over it.

loss goes a heavy casualty list, for the main burden of resisting the Serb, French, Russian, Italian and British forces in Macedonia is carried by the Bulgars. And even if they lose all of Macedonia with Monastir, they will have to endure more casualties, for the Allies will still push on. No one will venture to forecast that the fall of Monastir, even if it brings military disaster as well (these lines are written when only the fact of the fall of Monastir is known), will persuade Bulgaria to make a separate peace. The thing is just possible, given the fact that the Bulgar entered the war with little enthusiasm and recognizing that there does exist a pro-Russian party in Bulgaria.

The military value of Monastir is easily explained. Monastir is situated in a plain bounded on its eastern and western sides by mountain walls, that on the west rising to 8000 feet, that on the east to 6000 feet. West of the mountain wall are Presba and Ochrida Lakes, beyond which is the Albanian wilderness. Hence it was next to impossible to turn the western flank of the Bulgars, and they were holding a sort of Thermopylæ. Between the two mountain walls they have stretched trench lines which rested upon the mountains as a gate rests upon its two sets of posts; until the Allies could get through the gate they could not move north.

Now, instead of attempting to break through the gate—that is, through the trench lines—Sarrail sent the Serbs up the eastern mountain wall and they have been systematically clearing the Bulgars out of these hills until they have got north as far as Monastir, but above it in the mountains. The French, escalading the western walls, did the same thing, but when Monastir fell they were still five miles south of Monastir. It was the Serbian success that compelled the Bulgars to evacuate all their lines of trenches, because of the flanking fire from the mountains taken by the Serbs.

Monastir having fallen, the Bulgars must now retreat north over the Babuna Pass, probably making their first stand at Prilep, on the heights between the Monastir Plain and the Vardar Valley. Such a retreat, given existing weather conditions, may cost them all their heavy artillery and might end in disaster. But its immediate effect would be to expose the flank of the other Bulgar army, which is defending the valley of the Vardar, up which goes the Salonica-Belgrade railroad, which is the main avenue of advance for Sarrail. A very considerable retirement from Doiran might then take place and might

even extend to the evacuation of all the Vardar valley from the Greek frontier to Uskub.

All these latter considerations are speculations. But a real success, such a success as the Serbs alone achieved just four years ago on this same field where they routed the Turkish army of Djavid Pasha and drove it into the Albanian wilderness, might easily change the whole face of conditions in the Balkans. And what is of greatest interest now, it would necessarily influence the Rumanian campaign and might affect Bulgarian internal conditions.

It is always well to remember that the main Allied objective in the whole Balkan War is the railroad binding the Central Powers to Constantinople. If this can be cut the war will instantly change in character, for Germany will lose the one solid conquest of the war, the single chance to bring from the war a place in the sun, and will be thrown back upon Central European conditions. The fall of Constantinople, once this line were cut, would be inevitable, however long delayed. It is for this railroad that Sarrail is reaching. He is a very great distance from it even now when Monastir has fallen, and the Bulgars are retiring upon Uskub. But aside from the main purpose there is the incidental necessity to aid Rumania, and this is what the present Monastir operation was designed to do.

V. POLAND "RESTORED"

Next to the Rumanian and Balkan campaigns, the most interesting event of the month was the proclamation of a "restored" Poland at Lublin and Warsaw by the Austrian and German conquerors of Russian Poland. This step closed a whole year of hesitation and dubitation. It was taken at a time when there could be no mistaking its purpose. It was a deliberate attempt to repeat Napoleon's success in enlisting Poles, by his creation of the Grand Duchy of Warsaw at Tilsit, and it was marked by similar limitations.

Napoleon's Poland included all the territory of Russian Poland as it existed in 1914, together with the present German province of Posen. But when he freed Poland he was at peace with Austria and had no wish to invite a new war by endeavoring to take Galicia from Austria. He also refrained from taking from Prussia the portion of Poland which, before the First Partition, separated East Prussia from the rest of the Hohenzollern state. These failures led to



REGIONS INHABITED BY POLES

a final failure, for, although he did get Polish recruits, in limited numbers, he did not enlist the Polish people, as he might have done had he been more generous.

The present Austro-German project is much more restricted than was Napoleon's. Neither the Poles of Posen nor those of Galicia are included in this new Polish state; only Russia's Polish provinces are affected by the new decision. But at the same moment Galicia, which contains 5,000,000 Poles, has been promised autonomy, whatever that may mean. As for the Poles of Posen, they have been promised nothing and can expect nothing.

The first conclusion to be drawn from the latest move is that the Germans have abandoned all hope of a separate peace with Russia. To create a new state out of Russian territory and Russian subjects can only be accepted as proof that Germany no longer expects to be able to bargain with Russia, as she has long hoped. If only to regain lost provinces, Russia must now continue.

The second conclusion is no less patent. In "restoring" a portion of Poland, Austria and Germany have run the same risk that Austria ran when she consented at the Congress of Vienna to the creation of a relatively strong Sardinia, namely, it promised future effort in her own Italian provinces for liberty and unification with free Italians. Nothing is more certain, even if the Central Powers win the war and are able to make the Polish autonomy permanent, than that

the Poles in their own provinces will seek union with the Poles of the autonomous Poland. All modern history supports the belief that once a fraction of a people is free, all parts will seek freedom and union. The case of Serbia, still fresh in mind, is an admirable example.

For Austria this means the danger of losing some 5,000,000 subjects. But this would not be too serious, because these 5,000,000 Poles live in a well-defined district in which there are no other races. Austria could afford to sacrifice her Poles and gain a strong buffer state on the east in return. It is different with Germany; her Poles are inextricably entangled with Teutons, and if old Poland were restored, she would face mutilation, and 2,000,000 Germans east of the Vistula would be cut off from all contact with the main block of German peoples by a Polish wall thrust north toward and west of Dantzig.

Yet a Poland made up of Austrian and Russian Poles would be a state of at least 17,000,000 people. It would hardly endure being cut off from the sea and thus made tributary to Germany. All the considerations of self-interest and sentiment would lead it to aspire to retake old Polish lands, some of them still populated by Poles, and gain a window on the sea. And with such an ambition Russia, once she had lost her Polish provinces, would necessarily sympathize. Thus would be born a Polish question like to the old Serb question, but this time pressing fatally upon Germany, not Austria.

We are bound to conclude that in undertaking even the limited and partial restoration of Poland now promised, Germany was driven by necessities, for no one can mistake the risks. Poland divided between three great powers, all united in a common policy of repressing the Poles, was one thing. A Poland partially free and longing to achieve complete freedom and unity, a Poland secretly or openly championed by Russia—this would be a far different thing. And this is what the future seems to promise, even if the Central Powers win.

But if they lose—if they are heavily defeated—will Russia fail to follow their example and liberate their fractions of Poland? She has already promised an autonomous Poland; will she not include within it old Polish cities like Cracow and Dantzig, Posen and Thorn? Will she not insist that this autonomous Poland have a frontage on the Baltic, control of the lower Vistula? Will she not view with equanimity the passing of

the 2,000,000 Teutons in East and West Prussia under a Slav rule? Nor is there any better reason why 4,000,000 Poles should be subject to German rule than that 2,000,000 Germans should be subjects of a Slav state.

The Polish incident is one of the most interesting of the whole war. It opens new horizons and raises new problems. It may prove the greatest blunder of Germany during this war; it certainly gives promise of new vitality to Polish patriotism and new basis for Polish hopes. In any event, Germany has raised the question and Russia has responded with the expected protest and challenge. Germany is now raising a Polish army, but it is too soon to estimate her success or failure. What is plain is that she has risked much; even Austria has taken a considerable gamble in the hope of getting recruits. Is it too much to conclude that this points to a growing apprehension on the subject of man-power, an apprehension plainly disclosed in the shameful violation of the rights of humanity and the rules of international law in recent Belgian deportations?

The psychologist might, too, find material for profound investigation in the mentality which invites neutral applause for a proposal to liberate the Poles and at the same moment excites neutral indignation by deporting the unhappy Belgians.

VI. BRITISH PROGRESS

November saw a long pause in the operations at the Somme, followed by a sudden British advance—the most business-like of all British advances—the capture of some 6000 prisoners and the winning of a local success at a relatively low cost in casualties. The manner in which Beaucourt, Beaumont-Hamel, and St. Pierre Divion were taken was of infinitely more importance than the captures themselves. Here was a plain indication of a fact long doubted but becoming unmistakable, that the new British armies were learning the game of modern war.

To-day Britain has 1,500,000 troops in France. In the last four months she has lost close to 600,000 in the fighting which has been going forward. She has actually taken over the operative task in the West, although French attacks continue at points. Conceivably she will presently take over still more of the French front—to-day she holds rather less than one-quarter of the west front—some French writers urge this and some

British commentators have forecast it. Actually Germany has now to deal with a fresh foe, just beginning to bring his trained troops in great masses into action.

At the beginning of the Somme battle the British failed rather badly. They failed as our troops failed in all the early battles of the Civil War, and for the same reasons. They did not fail in courage or devotion; the men were as brave as the officers, but unfortunately only a little less trained. As a result the British attack was promptly held up, while the French made sweeping progress. The British losses were terrific where the French losses were light, and many British troops were killed by British guns, so difficult is the work of coördinating man with gun in modern attack.

But from July to November the improvement has been steady and rapid. The new British armies are not as good as the German or the French; the new officers are not the equals of the French and German officers who have given their lives to the study of the business of war. But there is no longer the hopeless inferiority of the early months of the war. Guns the British have, as good as the French or the German, and munitions in adequate amounts. Gunners they are getting, now that the French have lent their artillery officers to train the British.

Next year, in the minds of most British military critics, the British army will be ready. It will be equal to its task, and its improvement matches the deterioration of the German army, through losses. Britain is now drawing on the best of its selected manhood, the men who volunteered at the early calls; the Germans are drawing upon the older and younger classes.

It is difficult to praise too highly the achievement of the British in creating a vast national army out of next to nothing in two short years. The Germans did not believe they would even dare to impose compulsory service, and British policy here in this case was a shock to all Germans, a shock which they confessed to my friend Mr. Swope, of the *World*, who has recently returned from Berlin and supplied this country with admirable pictures of present German conditions, seen sympathetically.

But the British army was not ready this year. It had to get its training in the field, and the training covered the period when a general offensive could hope to be successful. That time has passed now, and while we are likely to see thrusts, whenever the weather



A STREET IN SHELL-SHATTERED VERDUN

is favorable, there is no longer any thought in Paris or London of a piercing of the German line this year. In both capitals it is agreed that the real test will come next summer. Now the Somme operation is mainly continued to prevent the Germans from sending troops to Rumania and to keep a strain upon German resources in munitions and men.

I do not mean to say that it is not conceivable that the British may break the German lines in the west before next spring, but I do not believe there is a British officer who expects it or has expected it for the past two months. When the Germans say they have won the battle, when they say they have blocked the Anglo-French effort to pierce their lines, they seem to me to be telling the exact truth. The real Battle of the Somme seems to me to have ended several months ago, but the siege at the Somme is likely to go forward all winter and yield a harvest of ruined villages and prisoners to the assailant, at a cost that so far must have passed 600,000 in killed, wounded, and captured. Already 80,000 German prisoners have been taken. It is asserted by some military men that in this war the casualties average six times the prisoners; in that case the German loss at the Somme would be 480,000. This seems to me high, as does the German estimate of 750,000 casualties among the Allies, but nei-

ther figure is incredible and I cite them for what they are worth.

VII. VERDUN—THEY DID NOT PASS

On October 21, exactly eight months to the day after the first German attack, three French divisions, commanded by General Magin, left their trenches, swarmed up the famous slopes of Fort Douaumont, took the fort, took the village of Fleury, the woods of Caillette, of Laufée, of Fumin, took the Haudraumont quarries, the farm and work of Thiaumont, took the Damloup battery, and stretched a net around the Fort of Vaux, their attack pausing at the edge of Vaux village and about Vaux Pond. In a few hours there were retaken all the important places, all the component parts in the defensive system of the fortified camp of Verdun, save only the Fort of Vaux, and that was evacuated by the Germans a few days later.

When the French attack had ended and Vaux had been evacuated, the French remained in possession of every fort and every prepared line which had been erected before the war and which belonged to the old Verdun defense system. They had retaken in less than six hours the ground which had occupied the German army for more than seven months in daily fighting and cost the



THE HONORS OF VERDUN

(The picture shows the cushion on which the President of the Republic pinned the crosses and medals conferred on the town of Verdun by France and the Allies. At the top is the Cross of the Russian Order of St. George; underneath, from left to right, are seen the Military Cross, the Cross of the Legion of Honour, the French War Cross, the Italian Gold Medal for Military Valour; below, from left to right, the Serbian Gold Medal for Bravery, the Belgian Cross of Leopold I., and the Obilitch medal of Montenegro.)

Germans not less than half a million casualties. In making the assault the French took 6000 prisoners and lost rather less than 5000 in killed and wounded.

A more brilliant bit of scientific military operation it would be impossible to imagine. The Germans in Douaumont were surprised and the French captured many guns and a whole magazine of shells, grenades, and ammunition, together with vast stores of provisions and a water supply. Even the electric-light plant was soon in service, far down in the labyrinths of the ancient defense.

Such was the end of the German attack upon Verdun. To-day the French once more hold all the hills about Verdun, and of their losses in the defense they have retaken every yard that was of military value. The Germans took Douaumont on February 25; they were still advancing on June 25, and they had then covered rather less than two miles. This two miles the French covered in less than six hours. When the French counter-attacked, the Germans had reached the ditch of Souville. Literally, the French were fighting with their back to the wall; their

hold upon the hills on the east bank of the Meuse was measured by inches. Now, if the Germans desire Verdun they will have to begin all over again.

Verdun was saved, primarily, by the courage of its own defenders; but the offensive at the Somme long ago compelled the Germans to draw off men and guns to meet the new menace. When enough men and guns had gone to satisfy the French, they attacked, to get more elbow room, as General Petain expressed it. As long as the Germans held on to Vaux and Douaumont, there was a chance of a renewed offensive. The new French success has now made the earlier Verdun victory absolute.

On the military side this feat was chiefly important as it displayed the wonderful efficiency of the French army. On the sentimental side it has a value that cannot be exaggerated. Verdun will rank with the Marne in French history, and together these two triumphs of the French over the Germans will remain landmarks in war and history. It is unlikely that the victory will have any consequences. Nothing is less likely than a drive toward Metz. Conceivably there will be a new effort to remove the St. Mihiel salient, but even this is unlikely. Verdun does not offer a good base for an offensive; it is hardly likely to invite new efforts on the part of the Crown Prince.

One of the odd things about this war is the fashion in which we have grown accustomed to events which will remain the marvel of the generations which come hereafter. Anyone who was in France during the attack upon Verdun will agree that for the French, Verdun has become a vital circumstance in the history of the race. Long before the end of the attack Verdun had lost its military value; it had lost its moral value for the Germans, so far as the rest of the world was concerned, long before the end came; but the fall of Verdun, although it proved to be without consequences, would have been a tragedy for the whole French people, so passionately had they willed that it should hold.

For myself, after I had been to Verdun and seen the soldiers who were defending it, heard their confident assertion, "They shall not pass," I could not believe that there could be any other end to the battle than that which has now come. And I am satisfied that the same spirit will repulse any proposition of peace that does not include the redemption of Alsace-Lorraine.

BOTHA OF SOUTH AFRICA

AS the nineteenth century was drawing to its close, one Louis Botha, a sturdy and prosperous young farmer of the Transvaal, found himself at the head of a peace party, in opposition to President Kruger, who was urging war with Great Britain.

the pioneers moved westward by stages, and in the eighties of the last century young Louis Botha was opening up a new country and laying social foundations precisely as hundreds of vigorous young Americans were doing at the same period in the Dakotas, Washington, Montana, and Idaho.



RT. HON. LOUIS BOTHA, PRIME MINISTER OF THE UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

Botha had been for peace with England, but when old Kruger's counsels prevailed and his country was committed to war, in 1899, no one answered the call to arms more promptly. Botha was thirty-seven when the summons came. That was in 1899. One year before, in America, hundreds of men of his type had joined the famous "Rough Riders" for service in Cuba with Roosevelt and Wood. If Botha had been a resident of Arizona or Montana in those days, instead of the Transvaal, there is no doubt whatever that the regiment would have numbered among its officers this strapping, Dutch-speaking son of the veldt, who could ride and shoot with the best cowboy of them all.

The Boer army organization would not be taken as a model for any modern military system; but its very weaknesses made easier the rise to high command of able subalterns. At least it gave a young officer his chance to show what was in him. Botha got his chance under Joubert. It was only a matter of weeks before this field-cornet was in command of armies. At Colenso, Botha with 6000 men held off Buller with 18,000, and made such use of the deep trench as has become familiar in the great war during the past two years. European experts have

studied, with profit, Botha's brilliant defenses. The shrewdness with which he divined the enemy's intentions was almost uncanny; and more than once it made him victor of a doubtful field. His only military training had been received years before in campaigns against the Zulus. He was never known to use a map. His accurate knowledge of the country made maps superfluous.

Becoming Commandant-in-Chief of the

We think of the South African Boers as exclusively Dutch, but many families among them are of French Huguenot stock; such were the Bothas, who had come to the Cape about the time other Huguenot families had crossed the Atlantic to America.¹ Each generation made its "trek," just as in America

¹General Botha: The Career and the Man. By Harold Spender. Houghton, Mifflin. 348 pp. \$2. We are indebted to this excellent biography for many of the facts here stated.

Transvaal forces after the death of Joubert, Botha for nearly three years kept Roberts and Kitchener guessing, and it was only the relentless policy of British "frightfulness"—the laying waste of the land and the cutting off of supplies—that ended the uneven conflict. Kitchener's "reconcentration" of the Boers, not unlike the Spanish Weyler's policy in Cuba, at last made further resistance to the British power impossible.

Botha's own valuable farm had been destroyed in the war; but it was with no bitterness of spirit that he set about the restoration of his family's shattered fortunes and the rebuilding of his country. His sisters had married Englishmen, and among those who fought against him for three years were his own nephews. He himself had always been well disposed toward English rule. His feeling now was akin to that of many Confederate soldiers at the close of our own Civil War.

The reconstruction problem that faced the Boer republics in 1903 was quite as serious as that of our Southern States in 1865. In both cases there were complications of race and tradition that added immeasurably to the difficulty of solution. In America the North tried to impose its own plan of reconstruction on the stricken South, and failed. In South Africa, England attempted something of the same kind, and but for the co-operation of a few broad-visioned leaders among the Boers, she, too, would have failed. All the Milners and Merrimans and Selbornes that England could have sent to the Cape, however good their intentions, could not in fourteen years have put South Africa where she is to-day without the help of a Botha and a Smuts, working from purely patriotic impulses for the re-creation of a prostrate home-land.

Botha's close association with the English for many years before the war had shown him the possibilities of growth under their colonial system of self-government. Looking into the future he saw a great South African population working the mines and the farms, remote from the world's clashing interests, prospering as it had never prospered under the rule of Kruger and Steyn. In short, he had caught the vision; it remained for him to do his part in making it come true.

By the time the Transvaal was ready to begin the experiment of self-government, in 1907, it had in Botha a leader, respected alike by English and Dutch, who could be counted on to rally all elements to the support of the new colonial state. It was foreordained that

he should be the first Premier; and his co-operation with Lord Selborne, the Governor-General, laid the foundations of the Union of South Africa which went into effect in 1910. This is a real union of four colonies rather than a federation, and governs a population of a million and a quarter whites and five million blacks, scattered over an area somewhat larger than Germany and Austria-Hungary combined, or the aggregate areas of Texas, California, and the State of New York (see map on page 636).

Botha's promotion from the premiership of the Transvaal to that of the Union itself—a dramatic honor for a man who within a decade had been in arms against the British Empire—was not an unmixed blessing so far as his personal well-being was concerned. It brought severe tests of his patience and his statesmanship. The new government soon had to face industrial disturbances that threatened its very existence. In the strikes on the Rand, Botha brought the miners and the companies together and secured arbitration. In the railroad strikes he took drastic measures, deporting to England ten of the leaders who had fomented the trouble.

But all the earlier difficulties of administration seemed light as compared with the perils that attended the outbreak of the European War. The Union had cordially agreed to the removal of the British troops, undertaking its own defense, and had further promised to invade German Southwest Africa on behalf of the Imperial Government, when it found itself confronted with active rebellion within its own borders. The insurgents were headed by General De Wet and other Boer veterans, and for a time they threatened serious mischief. Botha dealt with the movement swiftly and energetically. In hunting down the rebels, Dutch troops were employed in preference to English, and the pursuers soon proved to be quite as adept as the pursued when it came to field movements on the lines of old-time Boer strategy. In a short time General De Wet himself was surrounded and captured, and the "rebellion" effectually put down with little spilling of blood. The result was attained, in the main, by men of Dutch antecedents—not by a force of British conquerors, and the way it was done attested the real strength of the Boer-English bond that Botha had welded.

Those who have followed in the newspapers the British fortunes in Africa during the war are familiar with the story of Botha's invasion of German Southwest

Africa—how he recruited an army of 50,000, half British and half Dutch, entered the German territory at three points, crossed the deserts by forced marches (his own division making 190 miles in five days), surprised and confused the Germans by the swiftness of his movements, and at last surrounded them and compelled their surrender to a force smaller than their own. It was the soldier Botha who did all this within two months' time and with a surprisingly small loss of life; but it was the statesman who, when he had the German troops at his mercy, refused to shoot them down in their defenseless position, because, as he said, "we shall have to live with their people in the years to come," and it was the same generous spirit that dictated terms of surrender more magnanimous than any the world has known since Grant and Lee met at

Appomattox. Botha's work made German Southwest Africa (a country nearly three times the size of the United Kingdom itself) a province of the South African Union. Boer colonies will settle in it, and it may become to the Union what our own great Southwest is to the United States. It is true that "German Southwest" has not been highly esteemed for its fertility, but neither was the "Great American Desert" fifty years ago.

Botha's next service to the empire was the equipment of the East African expedition, and the success of that venture, under the guidance of its Boer commander, General Smuts, is one of the brightest pages in England's record of the war.

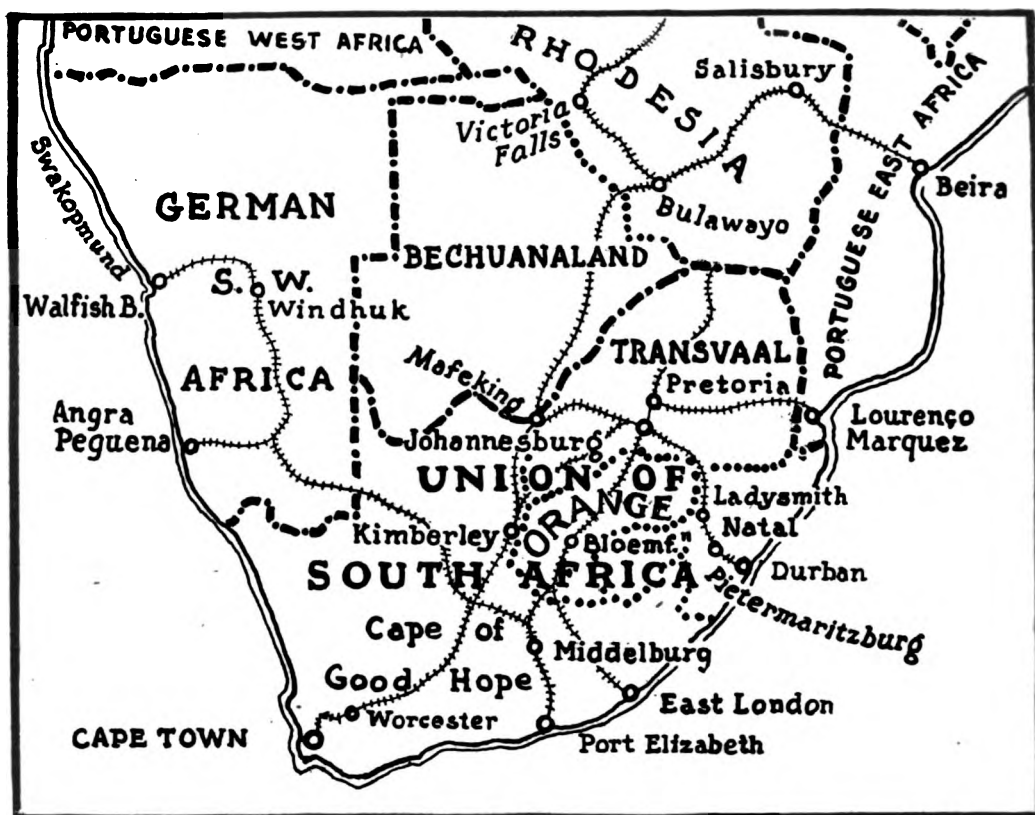
In all Britain's dominions there is at this moment no more commanding figure than "Oom Louis," greatest of Afrikanders.
W. B. S.



TYPING THE TERMS OF SURRENDER OF GERMAN
SOUTHWEST AFRICA



GENERAL BOTHA GREETING DR. SEITZ IMPERIAL GOVERNOR OF GERMAN SOUTHWEST AFRICA



THE UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA, AND NEIGHBORING LANDS

THE Union of South Africa, established in 1910, is made up of the Provinces of the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, the Transvaal, and the Orange Free State. The area of the provinces constituting the Union, in square miles, is as follows:

Cape	276,995
Natal	35,290
Transvaal	110,426
Orange Free State.....	50,389
Total	473,100

Of the total population of 5,973,294 in 1911, about 4,700,000 were native, or colored. The Boer Provinces of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State showed an increase, respectively, of 32.78 per cent. and 36.37 per cent., during the seven years, 1904-1911. Among the cities of the Union only two, Johannesburg and Germiston, showed an increase of population, the former of nearly 50 per cent. in seven years, and the latter of 70 per cent. Johannesburg now has a population of over 120,000.

Under the name Rhodesia is included the en-

tire region extending from the Transvaal Province, northward to the borders of the Congo State and German East Africa. It is bounded on the east by Portuguese East Africa, Nyassaland, and German East Africa, and on the west by the Congo State, Portuguese West Africa, and Bechuanaland. All this territory is under the administration of the British South Africa Company. The Zambesi River divides it into Northern and Southern Rhodesia. The area of these two divisions is 290,000 and 148,575 square miles, respectively.

The Bechuanaland Protectorate lies between the Zambesi River on the north and the Molopo on the south, and extends from the Transvaal Province and Matabeleland on the east to German Southwest Africa. Its area is about 275,000 square miles, and it is administered by a British Resident Commissioner.

German Southwest Africa, which was taken in 1915 by the army of the Union, under General Botha, has an area of 322,450 square miles—greater than that of either of the provinces belonging to the Union, but a great part of this area is barren and desert land. The entire territory is now under the British flag, awaiting the decision of the European War to determine its final status.

THE GRANT MEMORIAL AT WASHINGTON

BY ERNEST KNAUFFT

Henry M. Shrady will soon have completed a dozen years of unremitting labor devoted to the execution of a public task for the people of the United States. He has never sought the limelight, and his modesty is as characteristic as his genius for taking infinite pains. One part after another of his great memorial monument to Ulysses S. Grant assumes its place at the foot of Capitol Hill. The final result will satisfy the critical and will delight the larger public. What Mr. Shrady is doing, and how he is doing it, is well told for our readers by Mr. Knaufft in the present article.—THE EDITOR.

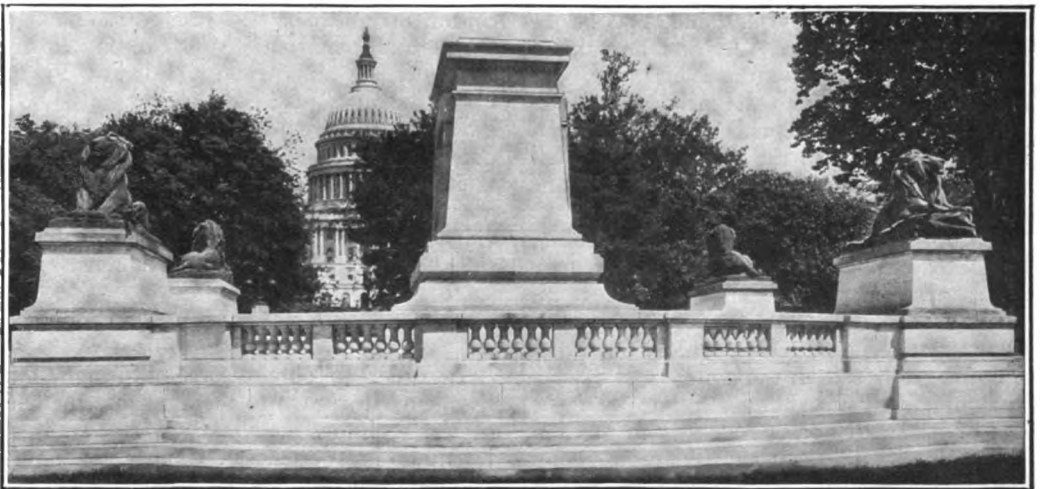
IN 1901 a competition at Washington called for a design for a memorial to General Grant, to be placed at the head of the Mall, and to cost \$250,000; the judges were Charles F. McKim, Augustus Saint Gaudens, and Daniel C. French, and the winner of the commission in April, 1902, was a young sculptor, almost entirely unknown, named Henry Merwin Shrady. To-day this monument is so well under way—lacking only the central figure of General Grant and two bas-reliefs—that it seems a fitting time to draw attention to a work of

art that is particularly sincere, particularly graphic, and thoroughly American.

It is, we say, thoroughly American, mainly perhaps because its author is thoroughly American in heritage, sentiments, and convictions. Mr. Shrady comes from a long line of American professional men who have done their share of public service; an ancestor was one of the founders of King's College, now Columbia; and his father was a surgeon in the army during the Civil War (he attended Grant during his last illness, and was long editor of *The Medical Record*.)



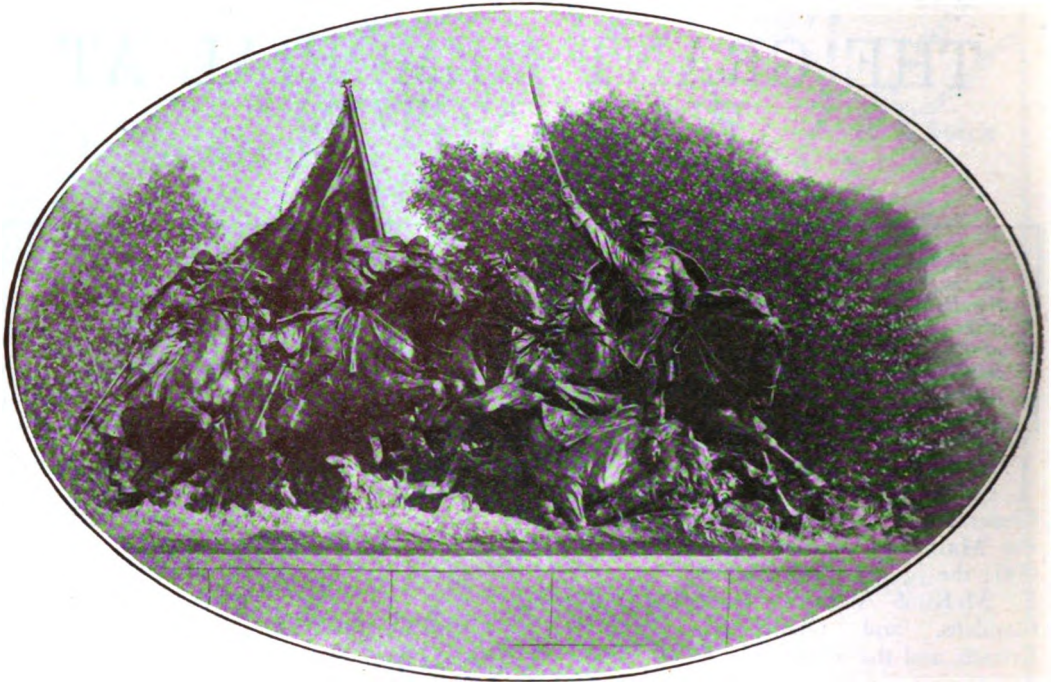
LOOKING TOWARD THE CAPITOL
—CAVALRY GROUP FIGURE



Photograph by Commercial Photo Co., Inc., Washington, D. C.

THE GRANT MEMORIAL, LOOKING FROM THE MALL TOWARD THE CAPITOL

(The pedestal is 265 feet long—it will be about 65 feet to the top of the figure of General Grant—and was designed by Edward Pearce Casey, the architect of the Memorial Bridge that will be built across the Potomac, and of the completion of the Congressional Library. On the central pedestal will stand Mr. Shrady's "General Grant," and to the north and south have now been placed his Cavalry and Artillery groups; on the sides of the pedestal will be two bas-reliefs of Infantry mustering, and making a charge. Parking extends from the monument down to the Potomac, where the Lincoln Memorial stands; about midway between these is the Washington Monument.)



© Harris & Ewing, Washington, D. C.

CAVALRY CHARGE, DURING THE CIVIL WAR

(From the cavalry group now in place on the Grant Memorial. For four years Mr. Shrady served in the National Guard, both in the Infantry and the Artillery, in order that he might learn what military things look like, and how things are done. As a result a group like this looks very convincing; we feel the sculptor knew his subject thoroughly)

Mr. Shrady was graduated from Columbia in 1894, and studied for the bar, though he never practised; he engaged in business for some five years, when an attack of typhoid fever necessitated a year's rest, and it was then, to occupy his mind, that he interested himself in art. At first he painted some animal pictures; these his wife, unknown to him, took to the Academy of Design—they were accepted and hung. His wife brought him to the opening day exhibition. He had not known her purpose till he stood before his own paintings.

Encouraged by this approval of his ability by the Academy jury he began to look upon art as a serious profession, and he next interested himself in sculpture. He modeled some small figures, mostly animals. These found a ready sale in the galleries of a well-known jewelry firm, and someone who saw one of his small horses advised him to enter the competition for an equestrian statue for the Williamsburg Bridge Plaza, Brooklyn. This he did with a figure of General Washington at Valley Forge. He won the commission, and that gave him further confidence in his ability to succeed in art.

Indeed, it gave him so much confidence

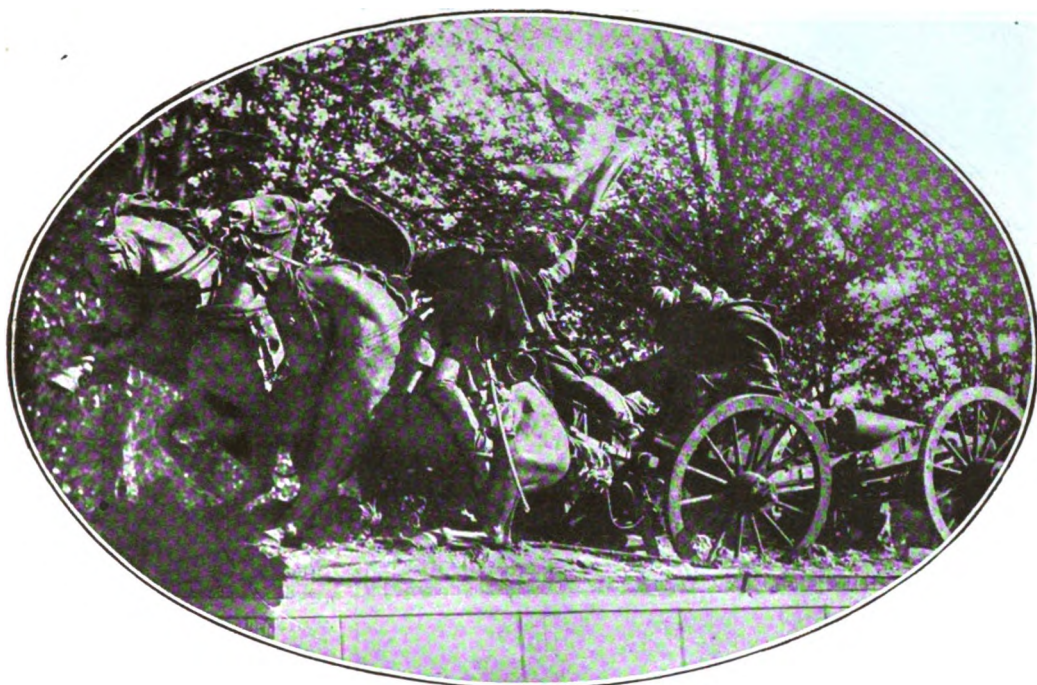
that, when a little later an elevator that lifted his horse model up to his studio broke down and a few weeks waiting for it to be repaired gave him some forced leisure, he determined to enter a much more important contest of which he had just heard, namely, the Grant Memorial in Washington. In this he associated himself with Edward Pearce Casey, who designed the pedestal.

It was a Herculean task for so inexperienced a youth—one wholly self-taught—to undertake; a daring venture in view of the prominence of the judges—McKim, Saint Gaudens, and French—and in view of the national appeal that the monument must make.

II

In order to obtain some information at first hand in regard to the aims and methods of the sculptor, we visited Mr. Shrady at his studio in Westchester County.

The country of Westchester is particularly concrete; it is so made up of little hills and valleys, streams and lakes, that it looks as though the Creator had fashioned it to teach physical geography to children. All the "Primary Highlands," the "Secondary,



© Harris & Ewing, Washington, D. C.

ARTILLERY CHARGE, DURING THE CIVIL WAR

(From the artillery group now in place on the Grant Memorial. A very animated group—full of weight—the poses are unconventional. Mr. Shrady's years of service as Captain in the Artillery enabled him to make his scene seem like a page from history, not merely an artist's dream)

Highlands," and "Great Central Plains" known to text books are to be seen on a small scale, as one sees in miniature on the mirror eyepiece of a telescope, no larger than a half-dollar, the craters and mountains of the moon.

One could not help but feel that this spot, where all of nature's characteristics are epitomized in a single square mile, was the ideal place for the work-shop of the sculptor who purposed to epitomize the whole of Grant's career in a single monument 265 feet long.

Here, on a hilltop back of his residence, part of which is over 200 years old, we found Mr. Shrady's studio; and knowing of his self-reliance, we are not much surprised to learn that he built it with his own hands, casting the concrete blocks for its walls. The outside is frankly rectangular, like the Italian villas of Raphael's time. Inside everything indicates the practical workman, not the dilettante. There are no tapestries on the wall, no rugs on the floor; but bags of plaster-of-Paris, for making molds, are stacked up near a great stove, while the skeleton of a horse rests against the wall, and on stands, at every turn, are models of statues in various degrees of completion.

Mr. Shrady gave us the information we sought with the modesty and frankness of a boy.

In regard to the final aspect of the monument, we asked what the big form would be? He replied, that as a big decorative unit the monument would be pyramidal in outline. At the apex would be the equestrian figure of General Grant; then the eye would fall down a step to four lions, frankly decorative, representing the guardians of the national and of the army flag; and then, a little lower, the eye would rest on two large groups, one a cavalry charge, the other the charge of artillery.

In his very first conception Mr. Shrady planned to avoid the conventional allegorical figures of "Victory," "War," "Courage," "Peace," and so forth, that are found on such memorials. He intended, rather, to be ultra realistic, and portray the actual occurrences of General Grant's career in facsimile, as it were.

The final impression of the monument is to be that it commemorates a period in our history when there was a great upheaval. Troops are being rushed to the front; the young men of the country have answered the call to arms, and every effort is being made



HENRY MERWIN SHRADY IN HIS STUDIO WITH TWO OF HIS CHILDREN
(In the background is the model of his General Grant—seated on his thoroughbred, serene and confident—that will crown his Washington work)

to save the Union. It needed a great man to control these seething forces. Such a leader was General Grant, and he is seen at the apogee of the monument seated, calm and impassible, the very embodiment of confidence. It was well known that during the fiercest battle he would sit upon his horse whittling a stick. He felt quite certain as to what the outcome of the fight would be, and so he always kept his poise. Grant required that his mount should be a thoroughbred, well groomed, and its accoutrements perfect; but he cared very little about his own dress, and never wore a sabre during an engagement.

As Mr. Shrady advanced in his studies, while he still wished to be accurate in every particular, he cared less and less to have the actual details assert themselves, striving rather to eliminate all unessential details, and to reduce all forms to a few big planes and decorative masses.

He also cared less about portraying the actual occurrences of General Grant's career.

He felt he would rather be decorative than pictorial. He wanted to get the spirit of Grant's time, rather than be strictly correct about any one battle.

He eliminated all suggestion of the gruesome incidents of war—no man or horse is dying; no blood is flowing; no agony is visible. A horse has fallen—he is sliding forward, his rider prone beside him—but that is as far as the sculptor has gone to make one shudder. He felt that incident necessary to accentuate the rush of conflict.

It was easy to see, as Mr. Shrady talked, that he had made this commission his life work; that he was developing as a man and an artist as it progressed; and that the final result was going to be something more than an enlargement of the sketch which obtained the prize for him in 1902.

III

If a piece of sculpture is to be a proper public monument and not a mere museum piece, it must speak to the passerby.

To test the validity of Mr. Shrady's groups we visited Washington on a golden day in November, and, with a sentinel's gait, paced up and down in front of the monument watching the visitors who stopped before it, and now and again approached them, asking them for their impressions, cross-examining them as categorically as Li Hung Chang cross-examined the people he was introduced to. "Does it seem real to you?" we asked. "Does it seem quite true?" "What do you see in each group?"

The proof of the pudding is in the eating, and the answers we received proved beyond the shadow of a doubt that this sculptor, who is untaught as regards his art, had learned how to speak to the people through sculptural forms.

"Does it look real?" we asked two artillery boys, who had stopped over in Washington on their way home from the Mexican border, as they stood before the field battery

group. "Indeed it does," was the prompt reply. "That man with the flag, he's the guidon; he rides an extra horse next to the leaders; behind are the wheelers, or the pole team; they've come to the edge of a precipice or a river, or something, and he's bringing the horses up to a sudden halt. Those horses are fine. With us to-day the leaders are a little lighter in build, but we have heavy wheelers in the pole team. Those horses are good and sturdy, just the ones for that work. The cannoneers sitting on the limber are holding on just as I've seen them do many a time when there came a sudden jolt. The captain will give the order to unlumber in a minute, and then the cannoneers will jump down and load the piece. It's a different kind from what we have to-day. They used a ramrod and fired with a fuse or cap. I've fired that kind of a gun in a moving picture of a Civil War battle I was in. It would kick a bit. Our field pieces to-day have about a 44-inch recoil only."

He would like to get a snapshot of that group, so took his camera around to the other side, where the lighting was better. Here many new details interested him: "See



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MR. SHRADY AND A STUDY-HEAD OF GRANT

(The simplicity and breadth of the hollows in this head make it very modern in technic, and guarantee that it would "carry" from a distance. Grant is, however, represented wearing a hat in the equestrian figure)



© American Press Association, N. Y.

A GLIMPSE INTO A SCULPTOR'S STUDIO

(On the floor is the first wax model of Mr. Shrady's Cavalry Group: this has been enlarged and cast in plaster, on this plaster model the sculptor appears to be working as though cutting away, or shaping, soft wax or clay (on the hard plaster the finishing details are really cut away with a sharper tool). From this plaster group, an enlarged group is made the actual size of the bronze figures, or rather a little larger to admit of a shrinkage in the casting, of about a sixteenth of an inch to the foot. This full-sized model is sent to the foundry, and a bronze casting is made by the *cire perdue* or "lost wax" process. The bronze is 90 per cent. copper and 10 per cent. tin. The cost of casting a single figure of a horse and rider is about \$25,000.

We may note here, in the white figures better than in the dark bronze figures, the thoroughness of the anatomical forms. Mr. Shrady made special investigations in biology at the Museum of Natural History, New York, in order to perfect himself in animal anatomy, and dissected horses and mounted their skeletons that he might know their form from A to Z)

the slack traces; that's true! The harness is almost exactly like what we have now, only that's a leather collar; we have steel collars. Also the toggles—where the traces are hitched to the collar—these are leather; we have steel cables fastened to the collar. Here there are no saddles on the off horses; with us saddles are on both horses. The men have sabres here. We don't wear sabres; we carry pistols, they are more effective."

The cavalry group he didn't know so much about, but, of course, had "seen them often, as the cavalry always supported a battery on one side. It looked like a skirmish charge. The captain of the troop was raising his sword and urging them on."

Two Grand Army men, veterans of Vicksburg, were equally impressed, but owing, perhaps to failing eyesight—they were between

seventy and eighty—they did not grasp the significance of the groups so quickly. But, by our pointing out some of the details, there was soon an awakened enthusiasm. "Yes, the groups were like what they had seen at Vicksburg, only the horses seemed a bit mixed up"—they evidently looked for line formation in the cavalry charge—and in the artillery scene they felt that the cannon could not get on much farther if the horses were in such a tangle. But after a little explanation they admitted that, as regards the cavalry, why, after the first formal charge there would be apt to be little side skirmishes over the battlefield, and in such cases the ranks *would* be broken.

Then it dawned upon the veterans that there were possibilities they had not thought of, and they began to figure out what might have happened. "The fellow with the sword, he's the captain; he doesn't need the sword much, but he must have some emblem of authority. The trumpeter keeps near

him, and the captain calls out his orders so he can hear, and he sounds 'Charge' and 'Retreat' on his bugle." Yes, he had seen a horse and rider fall just like that.

And so they rambled on till it became too dark for them to see plainly, and they turned to go with a farewell "thanks" for our having directed their attention to something they felt was "great."

The afternoon had advanced; the light began to fade; the people ceased to come into the park. In the dusk the figures of the statues seemed to nestle closer together, so that the groups became, as the sculptor would wish they might, perfect silhouetted units of decorative contour.

The twittering sparrows hopped lightly under the feet of the rearing horses, and the gray squirrels chased one another about the marbled base as though they considered the huge bronze masses as much a part of the park as the trees and shrubs. War effigies had no terrors for them.



DECORATIVE LION—THE
GUARDIAN OF THE FLAG



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ON THE LEFT APPEARS MR. SHRADY'S UNCOMPLETED MODEL OF A SITTING STATUE OF THE FINANCIER JAY COOKE, BUILDER OF THE NORTHERN PACIFIC RAILROAD, THAT WILL BE ONE OF THE PUBLIC MONUMENTS OF THE CITY OF DULUTH, MINN.



BOY SCOUTS IN A TYPICAL "CLEAN-UP" CAMPAIGN

TRAINED FOR CITIZENSHIP: THE BOY SCOUT

BY JAMES E. WEST
(Chief Scout Executive)



THE public is not accustomed to think of boys and bond issues in the same connection. The last general election in New York State, therefore, has given the public something new to think about.

The State Parks Committee had before it the problem of presenting to the people of New York State a proposition for the issue of \$10,000,000 worth of bonds for the extension of the park system of the State and the preservation of the forests essential

Parks Committee had no facilities for quickly placing before the voters the exact facts upon which to base judgment on this momentous question. It was a non-partisan and non-political proposition. Such questions must be presented on separate ballots. In a Presidential election the voter, with three ballots in his hand, might easily overlook and neglect the one which to him seemed of minor importance. Obviously it was necessary thoroughly to arouse and inform the public.

The Committee decided to issue an illustrated twenty-four-page pamphlet setting forth the facts, and appealed to the Boy Scouts of America of the State of New York for coöperation in distributing it. The policies and regulations of the Boy Scouts prohibit participation in political or partisan issues, but this issue was found to be non-political and of benefit to all the people. Therefore the executive board authorized that the eleven hundred scoutmasters in the State be given an opportunity to volunteer in the distribution of these pamphlets through the members of their troops.

As a result, twelve thousand boys in the State of New York responded and in a very

to an adequate water supply for the cities of New York.

There are over one and one-half million voters in New York State, and the State



HELPING IN THE UNEMPLOYMENT CAMPAIGN
AT CLEVELAND

intelligent and effective way distributed nearly two hundred thousand of the booklets, thereby giving the voters an opportunity to analyze the merits of the plan. This has resulted in a large vote being cast, with a substantial majority in favor of the bond issue.

In this way the members of the Boy Scouts of America of the State of New York have strikingly illustrated their interest in a big civic movement affecting the public welfare. More than this, in the distribution of these pamphlets and by the thought occasioned incident to their work a very definite conception has been developed in the minds of the boys as to their relationship as individuals to the big problems of the State and Nation, and it was brought home to them very vividly that their membership in the Boy Scouts of America meant practical training for citizenship.

SERVING THE COMMUNITY

While this is a most conspicuous and striking example of the training for citizenship by *doing* instead of by merely acquiring book information, this sort of thing

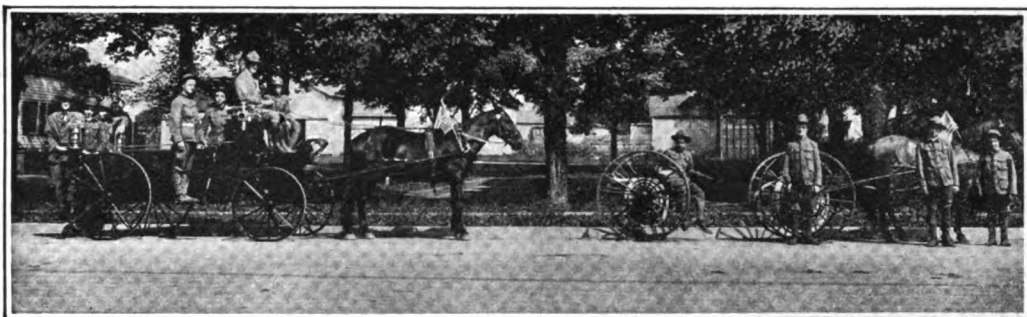
is taking place in every town throughout the country where troops of Boy Scouts are organized. Annual troop reports received at the national headquarters in New York during the past twelve months set forth eleven hundred and four different instances of scouts assisting in community clean-up campaigns. Twelve cases are reported in which scouts established public drinking places; eighteen of scouts acting as volunteer forestry wardens; forty-two in which they have assumed responsibility for raising and lowering the American flag on public buildings; 168 cases in which the scouts have taken some definite responsibility of adding to the attractiveness of their home cities; and 618 in which organized coöperation was given in civic celebrations. In 570 cases scouts have acted as guides or ushers in large conventions or gatherings, such as the G. A. R. encampments, and meetings of societies, associations, and other such groups. In six instances scouts have had the responsibility of making a complete census for the authorities. They have conducted thirty "safety first" campaigns, and have had a definite part in conducting 264 municipal Christmas tree festivities.

In addition to all this, numerous cases are reported of scouts performing charitable work, showing kindness to animals, searching for lost persons, delivering circulars regarding some worth-while function, entertaining children in orphan asylums, taking part in Memorial Day, Washington's birthday, Lincoln's birthday, and Fourth of July celebrations. Two hundred and twenty-eight cases of saving persons from drowning are reported.



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BOY SCOUTS HELPING OHIO FLOOD SUFFERERS



AN AUXILIARY FIRE COMPANY COMPOSED OF SCOUTS

VARIED ACTIVITIES

A troop on the Pacific Coast reports that, during the year, the scouts served as a reception committee for the State Sunday School Convention, looking after all baggage from the depot and acting as guides; fed several poor families on Thanksgiving and Christmas; fed birds during the snow season.

In the Middle West another troop reports that one scout rescued a boy from drowning, and that scouts took an active part in "swat-the-fly," "clean-up," and "safety first" campaigns. The scoutmaster well reports that he is proud of every member of the troop.

A scoutmaster in Michigan reports that a portion of his scouts acted as an information bureau at the American Medical Association Convention. At the annual Grammar School excursion the scouts acted as guards at the waterfront and did "first aid" work. They helped the police to handle traffic during the Christmas rush, took part in the Memorial Day parade, and rendered first aid at the State Fair held in Detroit.

A troop in Pittsburgh reports supporting a boy in an industrial school, serving as helpers in civic and philanthropic movements, and selling Red Cross seals in post-offices at Christmas-time.

A New York City troop reports taking part in conservation work and coöperating in the "preparedness" parade, at the conventions of the Federation of Women's Clubs and the National Education Association, and at the civic celebration on July Fourth.

A colored troop in East Orange reports that at the request of the chief public health officer the boys of their troop cleaned up the rubbish and refuse from four large lots and piled it in places convenient for garbage carts. In addition to this they collected the tin cans, rags and rubbish, and bottles of every description along the Lackawanna Railroad embankment for five blocks.

Mention should be made of the services of the scouts incident to the Ohio floods in 1913, the inaugural and Woman Suffrage parades at Washington in the same year, and



SCOUTS FIGHTING A FOREST FIRE NEAR GREAT FALLS, MONT
(The boys' shoes were burned on the hot ground)



SCOUTS TAKING A TREE CENSUS

the disastrous fire in Salem, Mass., in 1914; the services of the scouts at Gettysburg, where eleven thousand instances of first-aid work were reported; and in connection with the centennial celebration of the birth of the "Star Spangled Banner" at Baltimore in 1914.

A total of all of these reports of various kinds from different troops during the past twelve months aggregates 10,092. For convenience these may be classified as follows:

Acts of courtesy.....	1514
Acts of practical aid.....	2558
Distinctive services to the community..	6020

THE DAILY "GOOD TURN"

Necessarily, the reports which come to the national headquarters reveal only to a limited degree the extent of practical services rendered; and for the most part the reports are based upon collective action by the scouts as a troop. In addition to the services rendered by troops, it should be remembered that the 200,000 boys registered as members in good standing (as well as many of the half-million additional who have had the benefit of the scout training in the past) faithfully carry out the requirement of a "daily good turn."

Many of the daily good turns are of a distinctively civic character. It is because of this showing—that is, the actual doing of things worth while along lines of civic and community value—that the Boy Scouts of America has the active interest and coöperation of nearly 50,000 men on the basis that it is a movement for citizenship training of

the most practical character. Indeed, most of the men believe that this training is of greater value than that which is given in our public schools, and even in our schools of higher education where they have the benefit of special teachers and special courses in civics. The distinction between the training given in the schools and that given by the Scout Movement is that in the schools the training is largely book knowledge, while with the scouts the training is based upon the actual doing of things of a civic character which are worth while. In other words, action, not words, typifies the Scout Movement.

SCOUT "PREPAREDNESS"

The motto of the movement is "Be Prepared." It should be remembered that this motto was selected long before the present agitation for preparedness took hold of the people of America. The preparedness of the Scout Movement is of the most practical character, and is more far-reaching in its significance and practical value than preparedness simply for military purposes. It is preparedness for right living, for active participation in the life of the community, and for all-around citizenship.

THE SCOUT LAW

Every member of the Boy Scouts of America is obligated by his oath *to do his duty to his God and his country, to obey the Scout Law, to be helpful to others at all times, and to keep himself physically strong, mentally awake, and morally straight.* The Scout Law is as follows:

1. A Scout is trustworthy.
A Scout's honor is to be trusted. If he were to violate his honor by telling a lie, or by cheating, or by not doing exactly a given task, when trusted on his honor, he may be directed to hand over his Scout badge.
2. A Scout is loyal.
He is loyal to all to whom loyalty is due: his Scout leader, his home and parents, and his country.
3. A Scout is helpful.
He must be prepared at any time to save life, help injured persons, and share the home duties. He must *do at least one good turn to somebody every day.*
4. A Scout is friendly.
He is a friend to all and a brother to every other Scout.
5. A Scout is courteous.
He is polite to all, especially to women, children, old people, and the weak and helpless. *He must not take pay for being helpful or courteous.*

6. A Scout is kind.
He is a friend to animals. He will not kill nor hurt any living creature needlessly, but will strive to save and protect all harmless life.
7. A Scout is obedient.
He obeys his parents, scoutmaster, patrol leader, and all other duly constituted authorities.
8. A Scout is cheerful.
He smiles whenever he can. His obedience to orders is prompt and cheery. He never shirks nor grumbles at hardships.
9. A Scout is thrifty.
He does not wantonly destroy property. He works faithfully, wastes nothing, and makes the best use of his opportunities. He saves his money so that he may pay his own way, be generous to those in need, and helpful to worthy objects. *He may work for pay, but must not receive tips for courtesies or good turns.*
10. A Scout is brave.
He has the courage to face danger in spite of fear and to stand up for the right against the coaxings of friends or the jeers or threats of enemies, and defeat does not down him.
11. A Scout is clean.
He keeps clean in body and thought, stands for clean speech, clean sport, clean habits, and travels with a clean crowd.
12. A Scout is reverent.
He is reverent toward God. He is faithful in his religious duties, and respects the convictions of others in matters of custom and religion.

WHY SCOUT WORK AND METHODS APPEAL TO BOYS

The report of what scouts have done during the past twelve months throughout the whole country is convincing evidence of the interpretation by its members that the Scout Movement is a most potent factor for citizenship training.

These things which the scouts do as a result of the virile, unselfish leadership of men devoted to our country are but a natural expression of scout training for citizenship. These practical and worth-while results are made possible by reason of the attractiveness of the scout program of activities, which appeal so strongly to boy nature, and thereby capitalize the boy's gang instinct by organizing groups of eight boys into patrols and three or more patrols into troops, requiring them to pass tests in subjects not taught

adequately in our public schools, but which have tremendous value in making consistent the scouts' motto, "Be Prepared." These activities include not only the practical knowledge of things worth while, but a test of the ability to do things—such as knot-tying, signalling, first aid, map-making, camping, cooking, agriculture, archery, personal health, public health, physical development, swimming, life-saving, etc., etc. This



SCOUTS ASSISTING TRAFFIC OFFICERS DURING THE CHRISTMAS SHOPPING RUSH AT DETROIT

program holds the interest of the boy and makes possible the accomplishment of the real objective of scouting, which is character development and training for citizenship.

The eighteen thousand men serving as scoutmasters and assistant scoutmasters, and the twenty-eight thousand additional men serving as members of troop committees and local councils and special officers, are giving from five to thirty hours a week in volunteer service because of a definite conviction that through Scouting they are making a definite patriotic contribution to our country in citizenship training.

These men realize that our country needs a more distinctive conviction on the part of the men of to-morrow as to their responsibility, as well as their privileges, as citizens of our republic. By giving supervision and direction to the manner in which boys spend their leisure time, they are endeavoring to teach them discipline, a proper regard for the rights of others, practical ideas as to hygiene, and ability to care for themselves and to know what to do in any emergency. Furthermore, they are endeavoring to give boys, during their adolescent years, a prac-

tical interpretation both of our history, and also of their own opportunity as future citizens through practical instruction in patriotism.

Supplementary to the Scouting program of outdoor activities, the Movement recognizes the fact that boys spend much of their leisure time in reading, and has made available expert leadership and advice in the boys' reading program together with a high-class monthly magazine for boys called *Boys' Life*—the Boy Scouts magazine—and a selected list of fiction books in the form of its Every Boy's Library.

ALL-AROUND CITIZENSHIP, RATHER THAN TECHNICAL MILITARY TRAINING

Much has been said during the past two years about the question of military training, and many enthusiastic advocates of preparedness have sought to impose a part of the burden of the preparedness movement upon the growing boys of our country. The men who are devoting themselves to the Boy Scout Movement almost unanimously agree with the military authorities—the world over that the most essential things in the proper training of growing boys are included in the program of the Boy Scouts of America. They believe that if this program is efficiently carried out it will result in making available young men, sound in body, with a patriotic conception of their responsibilities to the Nation, in a way which is far more practical than would be the case if the time of these boys were consumed during their adolescent years with purely technical military training. It is believed by the men in the Scout Movement that the purely technical military training can be best given under the auspices of different agencies, and should not crowd out things which are essential for practical citizenship training.

For these reasons the Boy Scout Move-

ment, although only barely started, and with less than six years' history in our country, has commanded the support of the foremost leaders in every walk of life, including some of our most prominent educators.

Theodore Roosevelt has recently characterized the Boy Scout Movement as "distinctly an asset to our country for the development of efficiency, virility, and good citizenship." President Wilson says: "It is fine to have the boys of our country organized for the purposes the Boy Scouts represent. . . . I am proud of their manliness." Among many educational experts who have been interested in the movement, Dean Russell, of the Teachers' College of Columbia University, has expressed himself at length. He regards the Boy Scout Movement as "one of the most valuable educational agencies of this generation," and hopes "to see the time when every American boy will look forward to being a good scout and will be trained to incorporate the ideals of the boy scout into his life as an American citizen."

THE CALL FOR SCOUTMASTERS

The marvellously successful development of the movement during the past six years has been made possible only because of the unselfish devotion of thousands of men who have served as scoutmasters. The opportunity for the further extension, so as to reach a larger proportion of the eight million boys who are eligible for membership, is dependent entirely upon the number of high-grade men who are willing to volunteer their services for positions of leadership in the organization.

In all parts of our country more men are needed. All who are willing to help in any way will receive definite advice upon application to our National Headquarters in the Fifth Avenue Building, New York City.



CHRISTIAN COÖPERATION

BY FRANK HAMPTON FOX

CRISES in history have been the opportunities of the Church. During the decline and fall of the Roman Empire the Church, by her manifold ministries of mercy and the moral character of her teaching, reared an empire of love on the ruins of a worn-out heathenism. The Church has been a ministering angel to suffering humanity through the nameless horrors of war, famine, and pestilence.

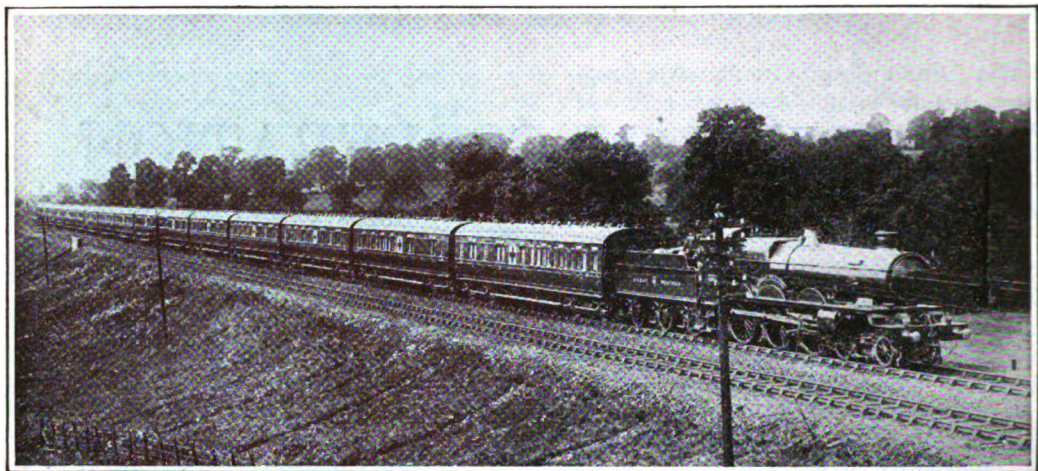
Through the centuries the Church has prospered to the extent that she has forgotten herself and taken the initiative in great movements for the betterment of mankind. From the fourth to the tenth centuries the missionary labors of such men as Ulfilas among the Goths, Augustine in England, Boniface in Germany, and the brothers Cyril and Methodius among the Slavs, accomplished more for the civilization of Europe than the philosophy of Greece and the laws of Rome. With the gospel of Jesus they won the nations who had cut to pieces the legions of Rome and hurled the empire from its pedestal of power. When the Turks were storming the walls of Constantinople, Christian scholars inaugurated the Renaissance. The Renaissance inspired a new patriotism, a new democracy, a new learning, and men transferred their allegiance from institutions to ideals. These new ideas found expression in the colonization of America and the ultimate establishment of her independence with the constitutional guarantee of political and religious liberty.

In all of these movements the Church exerted a beneficent influence far beyond the walls of her cathedrals, enriching the lives of millions outside of her communion. When Benedict Arnold was selling the cause of the American Colonies, Robert Raikes began to gather the "filthy slum-born" children of Gloucester into his Sunday schools. Though denounced by many conservative people in the Church, his social service soon won wide recognition and has now become one of the permanent institutions for the religious education of the children of the world. The Sunday school movement made necessary the organization of the great Bible societies for the publication and distribution of the Word

of God into the languages of the nations. Missionary societies sent men and women to enter every open door with the gospel. George Williams went outside of the Church and organized the Young Men's Christian Association, and General Booth mobilized the Salvation Army to meet the demand for an applied Christianity to conditions in the great cities of the world.

The Church faces another world crisis, and the test of her right to survive will be her ability to meet and master the present emergency. There is an industrial unrest, such as the world never has experienced before, because of the numbers involved and their power to tie up the industries of nations and empires. In recent years, because of rapid transit and electricity, the world has shriveled into an insignificant community, bringing remote countries into active competition, with the inevitable friction. Only by the practise of the great Commandment, "Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy heart and thy neighbor as if he were thyself," can the races learn to live together. The golden rule, "As ye would that men should do to you, do ye also to them," is the only possible solution of the industrial conflict which will shake the nations in the next ten years. The thousand millions composing the non-Christian races demand recognition, and when the present war is over the white race will be too weak to reject their claims. In so far as these people have ways and customs detrimental to their own best progress, the Christian effort to show better doctrine and practise must continue.

The possibility of Christian coöperation is demonstrated on European battlefields, where races, antagonistic in ideals and institutions, fight shoulder to shoulder for the glory of empire. If the Teuton can forget the devastation of his dominions by the Turk, and the flaunting of the green banner of the prophet under the walls of Vienna; if the French can forget Wellington and Waterloo; certainly Protestants can join heart and hand with Greek and Latin Christians in splendid coöperation for the annihilation of war and kindred evils which have long cursed humanity.



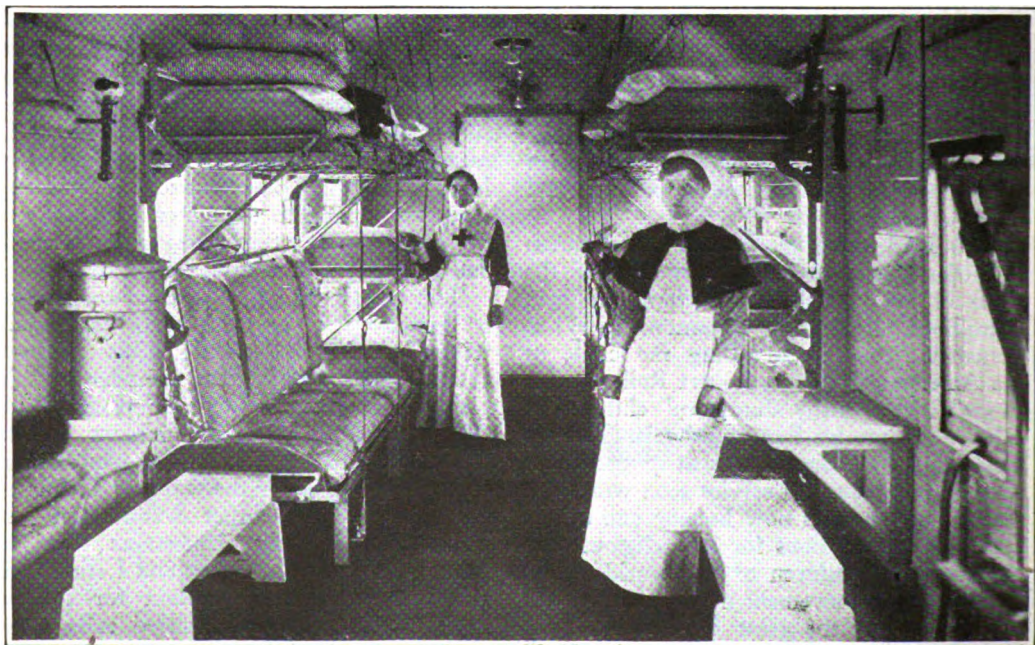
A BRITISH HOSPITAL TRAIN OF SIXTEEN CARS, ON THE GREAT EASTERN RAILWAY

ARMY HOSPITAL TRAINS

THE American reader has had many opportunities to learn of certain phases of relief work among the wounded in the great war. He has read of first-aid in the trenches, of the transportation of wounded in automobile ambulances, and of marvelous surgical achievements at the base hospitals in London, Paris, Berlin, and elsewhere. With one important phase of the subject he is not so familiar—the transportation of wounded from the temporary to the per-

manent hospital, by railway train. This service has had its full share in alleviating suffering and saving lives.

Before the outbreak of the European war there had been a few model hospital trains in France and Germany; but there are a hundred times as many now, and the modern train is entirely the result of knowledge gained in the school of experience. All the resources of science and engineering have been drawn upon, with a view to obtaining



THE INTERIOR OF ONE OF THE CARS ON THE BRITISH HOSPITAL TRAIN SHOWN ABOVE

as hygienic and comfortable transport conditions as possible.

French and British hospital trains usually consist of sixteen cars, while one model German train has twenty-nine cars. Approximately half of the cars are used for transporting wounded, and one is always fitted up as an operating-room. The remainder are required for surgeons and nurses, for cooking, and for the carrying of linen, medicine, disinfecting apparatus, and so forth. The hospital crew is seldom less than thirty men and women.



THE INTERIOR OF A GERMAN HOSPITAL CAR



A FRENCH HOSPITAL TRAIN OF FREIGHT CARS, WITH STRETCHERS SUSPENDED TO ABSORB SHOCKS

In the ambulance train on the Great Eastern Railway, England, there are twelve beds to each car—three sets of two tiers on each side. In the State Hospital Train of Bavaria there are fourteen berths to a car. Some French trains accommodate thirty-two wounded in each car.

Both French and Germans (as well as the medical authorities in our own army) were quick to invent means for suspending stretchers from spring-supported frames, in lieu of beds. Thus the transfer of the patient is

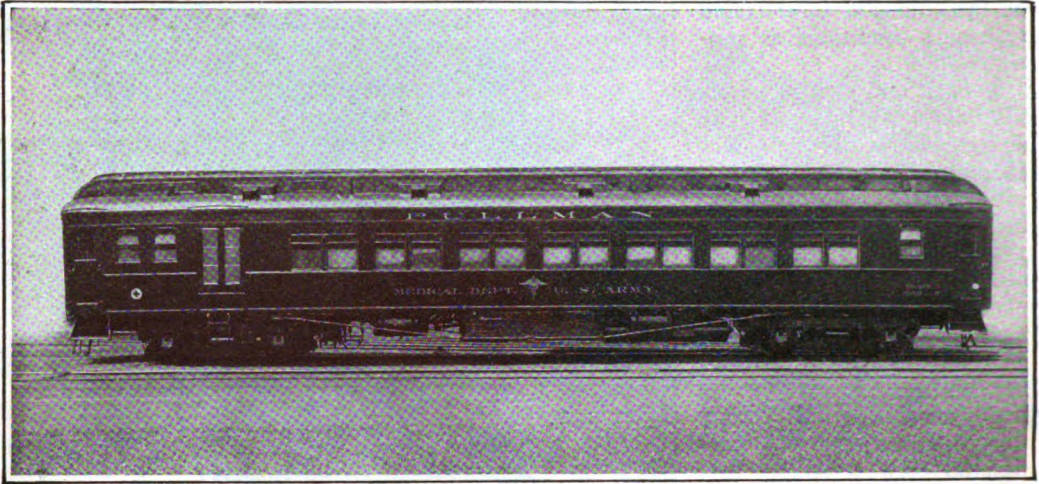
avoided, and at the same time train motion and sudden jerks and bumps are neutralized. It should be borne in mind that the wounded soldier may occupy a hospital-car bed from twelve to thirty-six hours.

Always there is some one car of which the officials have especial pride. Perhaps it will be the operating car, but it is quite as likely to be the disinfecting car, or even the kitchen car. A steam boiler is provided in every train, and live steam and hot air are freely used. Everywhere special attention is given to cleanliness; for it is the commonest knowledge, nowadays, that the danger from infection is greater than from the wound itself.

These European hospital trains are models of efficiency, with no attempt to make them as luxurious as one now employed by the United States Government.



KITCHEN OF HOSPITAL TRAIN EQUIPPED BY THE GERMAN EMPRESS



ONE OF THE TEN CARS OF FIRST AMERICAN HOSPITAL TRAIN, IN USE ON THE MEXICAN BORDER

THE FIRST AMERICAN HOSPITAL TRAIN

For several months there have been approximately 150,000 troops on the Mexican border, most of them being militiamen. Thanks to the tireless efforts of the medical officers—with vaccination against typhoid and other measures of prevention—the sick rate in the border camps has been extremely

low. But experience had shown that the medical department should be prepared to care for at least 3 per cent. of the command during mobilization and concentration, and 10 per cent. during active campaign.

Each mobilization camp was immediately furnished by the Medical Department of the Army with a camp hospital for the care and treatment of the militiamen who might require such attention. Hospitals of 150 beds were established at Mercedez, McAllen, Llano Grande, Laredo, Eagle Pass, Del Rio, Marfa, Douglas, and Deming (in Texas, Arizona, and New Mexico). Hospitals having a capacity of from 350 to 500 patients were established at Brownsville and Nogales. Larger base hospitals (about 750 beds each) were located at San Antonio and El Paso.

The trivial cases, or those requiring only short periods of convalescence, are cared for in the camp hospitals, the more serious cases being transferred to the base hospitals. A certain percentage of the latter need to be transferred to a more invigorating climate and pleasant surroundings. For this reason—and also because it is very important to keep the hospitals at the front evacuated so that in case of emergency they will be prepared to take patients up to their full capacity—a hospital train consisting of ten Pullman cars was designed and constructed at the Pullman Shops in Chicago, and sent to the border in August.

Patients are carried short distances along the border by motor and animal-drawn ambulances. All long-distance trips are made by hospital train. This train is also designed to carry the sick from border hospitals



THE INTERIOR OF AN AMERICAN HOSPITAL CAR

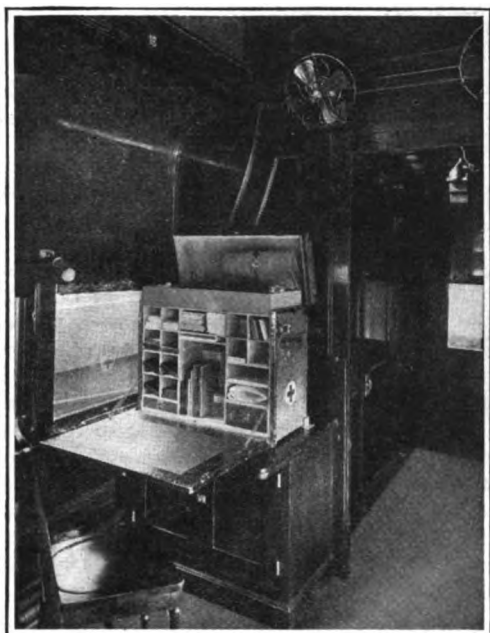
(In all there are 76 of these beds throughout the train. In most of the cars the upper berths have not been removed, and furnish room for 120 other patients able to walk. The beds are fitted with springs and mattresses, and the legs are attached to the floor. Side doors have been cut near one end of the car, to facilitate the admission and removal of litter cases. The end entrances have also been widened to admit the standard army stretcher.)

to the large general army hospitals located at Washington, D. C., Hot Springs, Ark., and San Francisco.

The hospital train is commanded by Major Howard Bailey, Medical Corps, United States Army, and has a personnel of three medical officers, twenty-five hospital corps men, and seven female nurses. It was designed jointly by Major Percy L. Jones, of the Medical Corps, and Mr. Phlager, supervising constructor of the Pullman Shops.

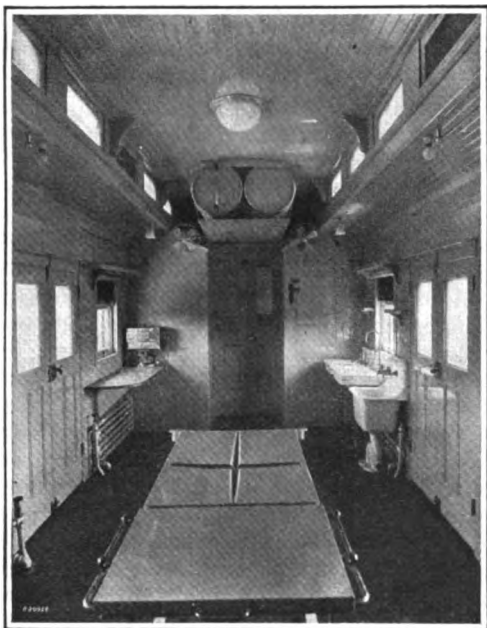
This train is entirely different from those used during the Spanish War, which were standard Pullman cars practically without modification. To load those cars it was necessary to detach each one from the train and pass the litter patients in through the end, the side doors being too narrow.

The ten cars which make up the hospital train are regular Pullman cars with necessary alterations and additional equipment. The first is a kitchen car; the second and ninth are for patients not confined to their beds; the third, fourth, sixth, and seventh cars are for litter cases; the fifth has operating and recovery rooms; the eighth has recovery and baggage rooms; while the tenth and last car has sleeping accommodations for



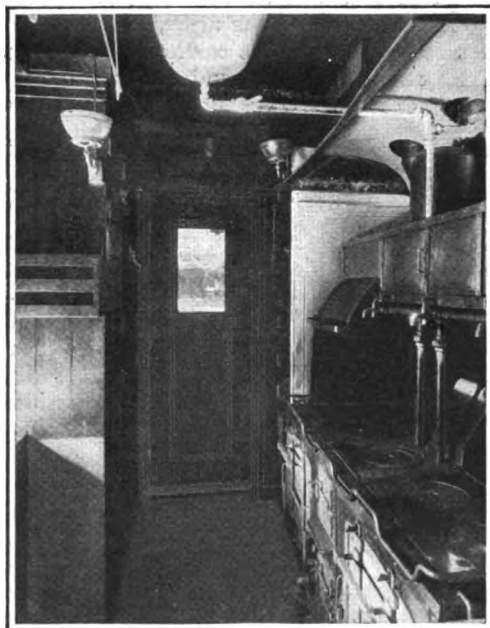
THE OFFICE AND MEDICINE CABINET IN ONE OF THE CARS

doctors, nurses, and attendants. The total capacity of the train is 76 bed cases and 120 patients not confined to beds.



THE OPERATING ROOM

(A 25-foot section of one car has been partitioned off for use as an operating room, with a composition floor, and equipped with all the appliances of a modern army hospital. Additional windows provide extra ventilation and light, and there are also two side doors. The remaining two-thirds of the car provides space for ten hospital beds, for the most serious cases and to serve as a recovery room)



THE KITCHEN CAR

(Complete with refrigerator, range, steam tables, movable serving tables, coffee urns, lockers, sinks and lights, and with 600-gallon water capacity. The kitchen portion of the car is about one-third of its entire length. The remainder, with partition and swinging door, has sleeping sections for the personnel and civilian helpers. This car is placed at the head of the train, to avoid unnecessary traffic)

FEELING OUR WAY TOWARD A MILITARY SYSTEM

A THOROUGH dissemination of reliable information, with a full discussion of the subject, should aid much in defining the needs of the nation regarding a proper system of defense and in deciding on a sound policy. To assist in the formulation of such a policy, there is now fortunately no lack of material on the subject available to the general public. For example, the Academy of Political Science has recently published the addresses on the subject of "Military Training: Voluntary or Compulsory," presented at its semi-annual July meeting in New York City.¹

The committee in charge was successful in bringing together a group of men possessing competent information and well-reasoned opinions, and who, moreover, approached the subject from different and important angles. The result was a valuable symposium of the matured views of experts and leaders in the different fields affected by the problem under discussion—such as the army, education, organized labor, and the employer—as well as those of the statesman and general publicist. The addresses are twenty-nine in number, including that of the chairman at the opening session, Dr. Albert Shaw, of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, who introduced the subject by presenting in a broad way "The Problems of the Common Defense." Contributors to this discussion were Administration officials or former officials, like the Secretary of War, Hon. Newton D. Baker, ex-Assistant Secretary of War, Henry B. Breckinridge; Walter I. Fisher, Secretary of the Interior under President Taft; soldiers like General Leonard Wood, Major Halstead Dorey, Adjutant-General Louis W. Stotesbury, of the New York National Guard; and Colonel C. De Witt Willcox, of the West Point Military Academy, and noted educators of the type of President Alexander Meiklejohn, of Amherst College; President James, of the University of Illinois; Professor Munroe Smith, and

Dr. Moritz J. Bonn, of the University of Munich. The problem was also discussed by prominent labor leaders, industrial experts, and well-known writers. In addition to the purely argumentative addresses, there were also informational papers on the systems of military training in operation in Germany, France, England, Switzerland, Australia, and other countries. In the views as presented on military training, the preponderant opinion seemed to favor some sort of compulsory method, as against the casual or volunteer system.

Among the various concrete plans for a military organization that have been offered, that of Major John H. Parker (Parker of the gatling-guns at Santiago) is unusually interesting. It is contained in a volume entitled, "Trained Citizen Soldiery."²

Major Parker has worked out his plan in every essential detail, even to the form of legislation necessary to establish it.

The plan provides for (1) a "Permanent Personnel" (numbering 99,400), composed of the Regular Army, and consisting of divisions for oversea, expeditionary, coast-defense purposes, and four divisions on a training-school basis, to be used for the instruction of recruits; these recruits will compose (2) a "Transient Personnel," to be made up of annual classes of 147,000 men called up for a year's training, and (3) "Minute Men," comprising those who have finished the course of instruction and who are to be held liable for service for a period of three years.

Being a practical soldier, Major Parker has not only planned a system of organization, but has considered solutions for such problems as the expansion of the force, promotions, and the securing of recruits, as well as the cost of the whole scheme. The author believes that in ten years' time, under the plan he has outlined, the United States would be the best prepared and the strongest nation in the world for self-defense. Major Parker's plan is well worth consideration.

¹Proceedings of the Academy of Political Science in the City of New York. July, 1916. Military Training Compulsory or Voluntary. Edited by William L. Ransom. The Academy of Political Science, Columbia University. 262 pp.

²Trained Citizen Soldiery. By Major John H. Parker, U. S. A. Menasha, Wis. George Banta Publishing Co. 207 pp.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

PRESIDENT WILSON'S RE-ELECTION

BOTH at home and abroad the results of the recent election have been considered in relation to the Great War and its possible outcome. In England, although the Wilson Administration has been severely criticized, it is generally admitted that at the end of the European struggle the United States will have a place in world affairs such as it never held before. This view is expressed in an article written for the London *Daily News* by its editor, Mr. Alfred G. Gardiner, who makes this comment on the reëlection of President Wilson:

We rejoice in the election of the most sagacious statesman American politics has thrown up since Lincoln. 'If we had reason to be thankful that Mr. Wilson was elected in 1912, there is still more reason to be thankful that he was reëlected in 1916. It is the one indisputable gleam of light in the dark future that lies before the world.

He cannot eliminate force, but it is in his power and the power of the American nation to make force grind the wheels of peace instead of the wheels of war. This will not be welcomed by the militarists of any country, it will be treated as a mere day-dream by those who believe war an indestructible character of human society. But it will have the passionate support of the common people of all lands, and it is the only hope of democracy winning an enduring victory over despotism.

In direct contrast with this British opinion is a prediction made by the *Toronto Globe*:

The net effect of the election, so far as the war is concerned, is that the United States must be eliminated from all effective participation in the negotiations and deliberations of the most important Peace Congress in the world's history.

In Germany, also, contradictory views of the significance of the election, and particularly of the relation sustained by President Wilson to the destinies of the powers now at war, have been expressed by leading journals. In *Die Zukunft*, Maximilian Harden characterizes the President as "a man of high moral and spiritual rank—a man of whom we would be proud if we had him." Harden proceeds to quote from President Wilson's

books passages to illustrate his character and ideals. He says: "Much that is foolish and unfortunately shameless has been said about Mr. Wilson and his election is hailed as one no German may belittle. This man, so falsely regarded, so foolishly defamed, looms up as no other who is visible to-day."

The *Hamburger Nachrichten* is a hostile critic of the American President. It says: "President Wilson already has done so much for Great Britain that only one thing remains, viz., to secure such a peace as England needs, rob Germany of all the fruits of her victories, and leave her impotent and placed under a guardianship." The article concludes: "Our destiny lies in our own hands. The most simple-minded man cannot wish to lay it in the hands of a man who, while in Washington, is attending to England's business."

German-American opinion, which had been supposed during the campaign to favor Hughes as against Wilson, is voiced by the *Fatherland* (New York), in a signed article contributed by the editor, Mr. George Sylvester Viereck. The tone of this article is distinctly favorable to President Wilson. Mr. Viereck enumerates these incidents of recent history to illustrate his point that the Administration has made an endeavor at least to steer a course of true neutrality:

The quick recognition of the status of the submarine merchantman, the proper attitude shown in the case of the *U-53*, the prompt suppression of the abuse of the wireless by the *New York Herald*, and the decision that an American citizen taking the oath of allegiance to a foreign sovereign, forfeits his citizenship—a principle for which we have long contended—are straws in the wind proving that the sail of our ship of state is at last turning toward the port of Fair Play. The wind may shift again. We may have to recant to-morrow our praise of to-day. We can only set down the facts as we see them in the light that is in us. If these reforms had been inaugurated earlier, the political atmosphere of the last two years would have been more wholesome.

All the steps enumerated by us were taken

quietly, unostentatiously. They were not a bid for the German-American vote. As a matter of fact, Woodrow Wilson made it perfectly clear that his attitude was not determined by the approaching election. But the Americans of German descent, not counting those who were too deeply committed to the other side and those who failed to note these matters in the tumult of the election, unquestionably took his apparent change of policy into account when they cast their vote. If the President had ostentatiously announced a reversal of state-gear at the last moment, he would have only aroused the distrust of that element. As it was not sensationally exploited, we are led to believe that the changes are due not to a transient shift of policy for the benefit of Mr. Wilson's political fortune but to a gradual yet sincere change of conviction.

Commenting on the Democratic opportunity of the coming four years, the New York *Nation* alludes to what it regards as a serious mistake of the Wilson Administration in a failure to build up a strong organization of young Democrats in the city and State of New York:

Mr. McCormick and those about him could do a remarkable work by building anew and avoiding the pitfalls of the past, and particularly by grappling with the situation in New York City, which will so soon be called upon to enter into a new mayoralty campaign. Needless to say, the *Nation* does not urge this primarily in the interest of building up an organization. In the organization as such it has no interest. It is not the organization that counts so much as a cause to the support of which people who think alike may rally.

Here is where one of the President's weaknesses has manifested itself. He has not been able to arouse enthusiasm save in a very few; he could not bring himself even to stand heartily behind William Church Osborn during his chairmanship of the party in this State. But it is just by kindling the younger spirits that the doctrines of a given leader or party are carried on, and the pity of it is that under Mr. Wilson no fine, large body of young men of the type of Mr. McCormick or Mr. Polk has been brought forward, while the enthusiasm of many has been cooled by the President's changing of front on various Democratic doctrines. Four years hence Mr. Wilson will be passing off the scene. All the more vigorous should be the effort to leave a group of men behind him who shall be ready to fight on for the vital principles which the party has consistently proclaimed for many decades. The fact that so many first voters cast their ballots for Mr. Wilson, that he gained at least two million votes more than were polled for him in 1912, shows the opportunity to influence men profoundly towards the doctrines of tariff reform, of anti-imperialism, and the other principles making up the Democratic creed to which these new adherents may be permanently won.

On the other hand, the great task of the Republican party in the next four years—the winning back of its own great States in

the West—is cogently set forth by Mr. Frederick M. Davenport in the *Outlook* (New York):

Bourbon politicians may still hold a measure of influence in certain industrial States of the East, but their day is over in the West. Certain great and naturally Republican States of the West the Republican party must have in order ever to win back national prestige and success. And therefore the leadership must be liberal to the core, and be clearly so in every part of the United States. A new spirit and a new strength and purpose will have to be introduced into the Republican organization from one end of the country to the other. For the next four years will probably be the final test of whether the Republican party is to survive as a great party of national, efficient, liberal leadership for the whole people.

The *Independent* (New York) also comments on the demands of the Progressive voters of the West. American voters, says the editor, are politically self-conscious:

They know what they want and they think intently and talk continually of the way or ways to get it. They believe themselves to be politically competent, and they do not propose to surrender their self-governing prerogative to any self-constituted group of superior persons.

To this situation the Democratic party under the leadership of Mr. Wilson has reacted on the whole intelligently, and the Republican party, rent by factional jealousies, has reacted on the whole stupidly. In every American community there are men intellectually alive and not afraid to talk about all manner of questions in a searching and forward-looking spirit. Some of these men are Socialists, some of them are progressives, but all of them, in a large and important way, are democrats. They are alien in mind and feeling to all groups and classes that for whatever reason are disposed to obstruct the democratic development of modern society.

In the Republican party are men of exceptional intellectual power, Mr. Elihu Root, for example, but they have signally failed to command a following among the live intellectuals of lesser caliber distributed throughout the nation. Their following has been among lawyers (for the most part conservatives, instinct and training), profit-making manufacturers, and, above all, among those groups which, in every American village, gather day by day about the stock bulletin and where intellectual operations rarely extend beyond "quotations."

These are blunt truths bluntly stated, but as surely as the sun rises and sets the Republican party has no future in this country until it wakes up to a recognition of them. If its leaders suppose that they can get back into power by handing out again the campaign "bunk" that has pulled them through in years past, and that they relied on once more this fall, they have further awakenings coming. The big fact in American political life to-day is the tremendous interest of the American masses in problems that call for something more than a stock-broker's comprehension of the earth and its inhabitants.

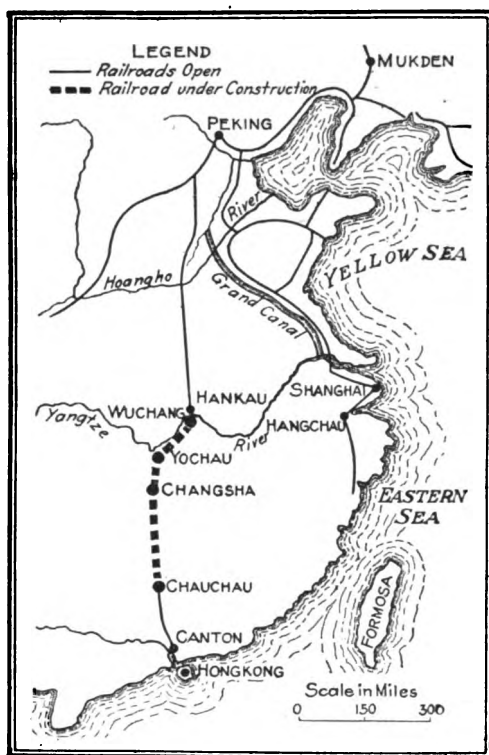
CHINESE RAILWAY CONSTRUCTION

ON September 30 the Chinese Government closed a contract with an American corporation for the location and construction of about 1000 miles of railroad. While no routes had been definitely selected, the various lines proposed were to add materially to the 6000 miles of railway now in operation in China, and were estimated to cost in the neighborhood of \$50,000,000.

Of the present railway mileage, over 3500 miles are embraced in fifteen different lines in the system of government railways, the remainder being under concession. The Southern Manchuria Railway, a company operating under a concession, has lately begun work on the Ssuningkai-Chengchiatum section of the Ssuningkai-Taonanfu Railway under the terms of a preliminary agreement concluded by China and Japan in 1913. The first section to be constructed is to be sixty-five miles in length, while the whole line will be 165 miles in length, and will feed the Southern Manchuria Railway. A loan agreement was negotiated during the year providing for the construction of the first section at an estimated cost of \$1,500,000.

Another important line on which construction is now in progress is the 300-mile stretch on the Canton-Hankau Railway from Hankau to Changsha, which is expected to be in operation in 1917. This line has been recently discussed by E. Park, a former Chinese Government railway engineer, in the *Engineering Record*. Track has been laid at both ends, and also at Yochow, the section under construction representing that part of the larger project which has survived various political and financial difficulties.

The Canton-Hankau Railway forms the southern half of the line connecting Canton and Hongkong with Peking, and, by means of the Trans-Siberian Railway, with Europe. Its construction through a densely populated section of southern interior China, reputed to have great mineral wealth, was first proposed by Sir McDonald Stevenson. From 1898 to 1905 a concession for the building of this line was held by American interests, but little, if any, construction was attempted. In 1912, British interests working for the Chinese Government put under construction 600 miles of line south from the Yangtze River, through the provinces of Hupeh and Hunan, the latter alone having a population estimated at 22,000,000, or an average of more than 200 persons to the



From the *Engineering Record*

THE LINE OF RAILROAD NOW BEING BUILT
BY THE BRITISH

square mile. For this territory the entire outside commerce has been carried on the Yangtze River, a stream of difficult navigation and with a considerable range between high and low water.

The construction of this 600 miles was interrupted by the Chinese revolution until 1914, when work was resumed, and then the financial conditions developed by the European War made necessary the limiting of construction to the 300 miles from Hankau to Changsha. On the southern portion of the route extending north from Canton some 200 miles as far as Chauchau have been completed and are operated by the Chinese Government under a Chinese, a managing director.

The construction now being undertaken by the British interests presents many interesting considerations, particularly as in many departments human labor has been found cheaper than machinery. Only the engineering chief, the auditor, the chief accountant, and the engineers in superior charge are foreigners, while the subordinate engineers

and overseers are native Chinamen. A foreign engineer, who is the only white man on the section, is in charge of each subdivision of about fifteen miles, but the Chinese assistant engineers are often highly educated and technically trained, and in addition, overseers, foremen, timekeepers, and the like, are supposed to speak English, some knowledge of which, in many cases, has been acquired at mission schools.

While considerable wood for the ties has been imported from Japan and Oregon, as very little standing timber remains in China, the rails used are rolled at the Hanyang Iron Works near Hankau. The cement is supplied from native mills, and the concrete used in the bridge construction is mixed by hand, the construction work progressing as steadily as under western conditions. The grading is done by contract, the coolies carrying the material in their small baskets, and

being paid twelve to fifteen cents gold per day, 500 men per mile usually being employed. The coolies' labor is so cheap that even the material excavated from the caissons in bridge construction could be transferred back to the approach fills, while a one-ton hammer for pile-driving was operated by hand labor.

An analysis of the cost showed that earth embankment could be placed by man power at a cost of three and one-half cents per cubic yard in American money, the earth being carried in small baskets for hauls averaging 1000 feet. Consequently, the excavating machinery used by American railway constructors has little application in China, even if it cost no more at the point of intended use than where it is manufactured. So far, in all Chinese railway construction mechanical equipment is used only where absolutely necessary, as on bridge work.

THE SOUL OF THE SOLDIER

A FEW months ago there appeared the first number of a unique review, published and edited exclusively by the officers, underofficers, and soldiers in the French Army at the Eastern Front. This handsome periodical is called the *Revue Franco-Macedonienne*, and its object is to promote mutual knowledge between France and Macedonia, as well as to record the work accomplished by the expeditionary corps. We find in it one of the most graceful, charming, and sensitive appreciations of the psychology of the combatant that has come to our notice in the literature of the war. This contribution is published over the modest signature of "Lieutenant R. L.-V."

The most popular man in the regiment is the postman, whose box, jouncing over the rutted roads, contains so many hopes, dreads, melancholies, passions, so much of confidence and of uncertainty.

In these tragic times, when human tendernesses are amplified and ennobled by long absence, or when occasionally sentiments which one had believed beyond the reach of change are attacked by doubt, like a lovely fruit by a worm, there seems to exhale from all these poor little letters written on the edge of the trenches, or come from all the corners of France, from these modest little packages, preciously and closely wrapped in white cloth, a tremor of unquiet souls.

For an hour, while we read, and re-read, and then unwrap the package, a tender communion hovers between the Front and the Interior, the trenches are plunged in a sudden melancholy. Then the soldier takes up again the cares of

war, just as he picks up his knapsack after a halt, by a shrug of the shoulder, which both secures the strap and defies destiny.

Great sentiments, little joys, a delightful physical activity in the open air of fields and woods, the most cordial of *camaraderies*, some heedlessness, the sweetness of enjoying a bit of permitted idleness, an honorable and almost glorious idleness, a very practical philosophy which makes us place upon the same plane of joy hearing that the Russians have stopped the German offensive, the prospect of roast partridge for lunch, or the discovery in the ruins of a library of a few rare books; a philosophy which permits us to take extreme satisfaction in a policeman's cap bought in the next village which strikes us as *cavalier*, or to be madly amused at the methodical rain of shells poured by the enemy upon a field already deserted, or to laugh till the tears come when a big shell-splinter upsets a full mess-dish—or which allows us to be moved without false shame by the solemnity of simple funerals or by the melancholy of tombs, to refind France in the measured tombs of a seventeenth century garden in the midst of a ravaged park . . .

All this is the soul of the soldier, in his life of the trenches, together with things of grandeur and of pettiness, of liberty and of servitude, which let the minutes, the hours, the days, the months, the years run by without bringing weakness to the fighting man.

Let us bow the head before the majesty of the simple French soldier. The victory of which we are more than ever certain, will reside doubtless in the formidable accumulation of munitions; but our enemies may also accumulate these; if we who know the troops are sure of conquering, it is because we know that the essential gage of victory resides, before all and above all, in the soul of the combatant.



Photograph by Paul Thompson

FRENCH-CANADIAN SOLDIERS AT AN OPEN AIR MASS IN QUEBEC

THE FRENCH-CANADIANS AND THE WAR

THE remarkable phenomenon presented by the French-Canadians of a people loyal and patriotic in their allegiance to England, yet imbued with an abiding love for France, and particularly for its language, is spiritedly discussed by a "French-Canadian Volunteer" in a recent issue of *La Revue* (Paris). That they have not contributed their full quota of men to the war is attributed by the writer to the shortcomings of the English authorities. We give below some of the most significant of his contentions:

Of all the nationalities—the writer begins—which enjoy the advantage of living under the British flag, none is more remarkable than the French-Canadian. It is impossible, indeed, to find another people that has maintained with as great a tenacity the characteristic qualities of its race and its language. And, more remarkable still, while openly manifesting its attachment to the old mother-country, France, it has never as a people ceased to show its loyalty and faithful allegiance to its political country, England.

Thanks to the attachment of the French-Canadians to their mother-tongue, French has become the official language, on a level with English, of the Canadian Parliament, of all the higher courts, as well as of the Government of the Province of Quebec, which is essentially French. For the rest, the most sensitive spot of the French-Canadian's

heart is his love for his language. Tamper with that and he becomes transformed as if by magic; he will assert that he wants to remain a French-Canadian, that it is useless to speak to him of devotion and duty to France and England as long as his language is in danger. Thus the British cry of alarm was unheeded by the majority of the Canadian French because they had just been made the victims of an outrage which in their eyes is more infamous than all those committed by the Germans in Belgium, France, and elsewhere.

In the Province of Ontario, namely, religious fanatics had long been carrying on a secret propaganda against the French tongue; taking advantage of the war, they passed a law recognizing English alone in primary instruction. The French-Canadian minority appealed to their compatriots throughout the Dominion. The appeal was heard and caused profound agitation. The legislature of Quebec declared that justice must be restored. The French-Canadian representatives at Ottawa made violent protests.

English-speaking Canadians who through an excess of patriotic zeal formerly carried on an anti-French crusade, recognize to-day the evil they have wrought; we reproach them for not striving hard enough to repair the ill they have committed, unintentionally, it may be, against the cause of the Allies.

The writer mentions two leaders who have been the most notorious advocates of the

French-Canadians' total abstention from participation in the war—Henri Bourassa and Armand Lavergne. The former, in his paper, *Le Devoir*, has been waging a veritable crusade against England, France, and their allies. Lieutenant-Colonel Lavergne, an ex-deputy, is likewise a fiery advocate of abstention.

These two men have exerted a baleful influence over the French-Canadians which can not be too greatly deplored. But there are, happily, those who are lovers of France and England, and their name is legion, besides those who, without great enthusiasm, perhaps, have joined the side of right and justice.

The writer adduces a number of extracts from various French-Canadian journals as evidence of the patriotic spirit which animates them in favor of the Allies and more particularly, of course, of France.

The French-Canadian clergy, the article continues, have been accused of hostility to the Allied cause; it may be true of the priests in general; as to the higher clergy, it has openly and frankly espoused the side of England and France. The entire prelacy of Quebec has declared itself in opposition to the propaganda of M. Bourassa. But it is the declaration of Mgr. Bruchési, Archbishop of Montreal, in particular, that stirred the English as well as the French part of the population. All the influential French-Canadian press appended lengthy laudatory remarks to the words of that eminent representative of the Roman Catholic Church. Cardinal Bégin in his paper, *L'Action Catholique*, expresses himself in a manner equally unequivocal.

But rising above all these voices, the most powerful, the most constant, is beyond doubt that of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, the head of the Liberal party. Universally noted for his eminence as a statesman, he is one of the finest examples of the French-Canadian race, of which he is more than ever, in these critical days, a shining light. From the very outset of hostilities he has not ceased to manifest his attachment to England and his ardent sympathy for France; his eloquent voice is ceaselessly raised to urge on a vigorous recruitment.

The writer laments that Laurier, who distinguished himself as Premier for so many years, no longer fills that post; he would have seen to it that men of his race should be given every opportunity to fulfil their duty to England and testify their love for France, the land of their origin.

What has been the French-Canadian contribution to the war?

In May, 1916, the *Montreal Herald*, an-

nounced the formation of thirteen regiments of French-Canadians, cited the official report that 10,000 had responded to England's appeal, and added that by the time the report was read the number must have risen to 14,000. The quota of the Canadian French in the great European conflict is 50,000 in a total of 500,000 promised by the Dominion to England.

The Minister of War, General Hughes, eulogized in an address the Canadian French who are on the firing-line; he declared that 10,000 of them had left for the front. These figures refer only to the Canadian French who have joined regiments called English. The English press in general recognizes that fact. In one of the purely French-Canadian regiments, the 165th, there are no less than 800 Acadians. How vividly the French spirit survives in that little group of descendants of the old French colony, Acadia, which Longfellow has immortalized, is well known.

But all these figures are far from satisfying the Canadian French who realize the importance of the task incumbent upon their people. If they are obliged to admit that the zealous efforts of a minority of devoted men have not come up to their hopes, it must likewise be admitted that those whose duty it was to see that everything possible should be done to have the entire Dominion participate in the great European War, have done little or nothing to facilitate recruiting in the Province of Quebec. Men of ability, despite all their devotion, have failed in their endeavors to form a regiment, for lack of financial aid. The English-speaking Canadians, on the contrary, have been favored by grants of money by the general or provincial government. They were thus enabled to send out recruiting agents throughout the United States, which helped to a great extent in the formation of several American legions—not to speak of the effectives added to English-speaking regiments.

Those best authorized to speak for the Canadian French patriots demand to-day even more than at the outset of the war the following conditions, in order to make recruiting a success: first, the financial aid of the Minister of War and of the Government of the Province of Quebec, to form citizen recruiting committees; second, the sending of the Canadian French contingents, under French command, direct to France.

There is a serious movement on foot to have the French-Canadian brigade sent directly and at once to France, under command

of one of Joffre's lieutenants, while retaining its character of British dependence and Canadian unity. England and the British cause, the writer adds, will reap only advantage in allowing the Canadian French volunteers to manifest their affection for France, while remaining faithful, respectful adherents of

the grand, liberal constitution of the British Empire.

Knowing, the writer concludes, that nearly 200,000 men are still lacking to make up the half-million promised to England, one has the right to say that nothing should be left undone to facilitate enlistment.

MINE WARFARE

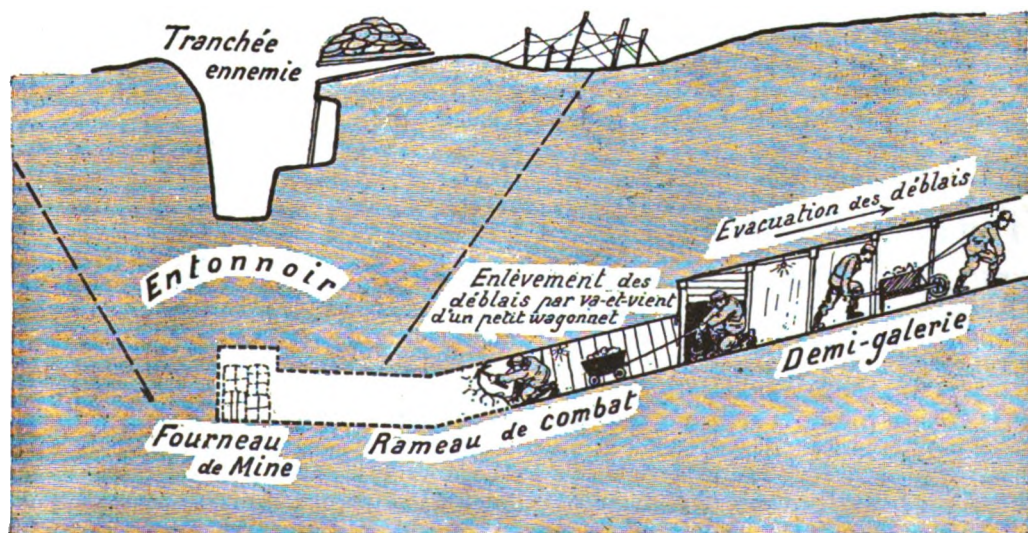
AN experienced mining engineer describes in a recent issue of *La Nature* (Paris) the methods of land-mining employed in the great war.

In the Franco-Prussian War the need of mining against the enemy hardly presented itself; although, years before, mines had played a very important role during the siege of Sebastopol. At the outbreak of the present war the regiments of engineers were called upon for a large number of miners and sappers. After the battle of the Marne in 1914, and the more or less permanent establishment of the two fronts behind entrenchments, it was clear that it would be necessary to avoid past mistakes in mining in order to insure a successful campaign.

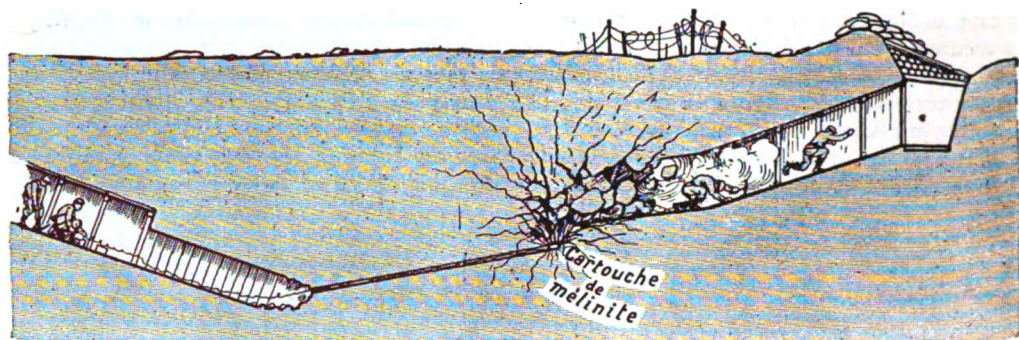
This type of warfare, carried on beneath the surface and pushing through tunnels and galleries like mole-borings, requires skilful planning and careful execution. In a siege, and the present war of trenches is nothing else, the attacking party tries to push nearer and nearer to the lines of entrenchments

where his enemy has dug himself in. As he cannot advance over the surface of the ground without discovery, he digs down, and, under cover of night, excavates numerous trenches and tunnels, communicating with one another, and so disposed in zigzag fashion as to avoid an enfilading fire. Eventually there comes a time when the distances between the lines of the two opposing armies are so short that it would be impossible to construct a new parallel trench without discovery, for the enemy, by using searchlights, can locate the workers and direct his fire so as to make it impossible for them to continue. It is therefore necessary to adopt a different method of approach, and underground operations are begun. The work is long and arduous and sometimes without results; but, if successful, the enemy's trench can be destroyed, or at least rendered untenable.

The method employed after all the trenches have been advanced as far as possible is to excavate inclined tunnels for a



SECTION OF UNDERGROUND, SHOWING METHODS OF EXCAVATION AND REMOVAL OF EARTH, AND SAND BAGS FOR CONFINING EFFECTS OF EXPLOSION TO THE ENEMY'S TRENCH



DESTROYING AN ENEMY'S PARTIALLY COMPLETED MINE TUNNEL BY COUNTERMINING AND SETTING OFF A CARTRIDGE OF HIGH EXPLOSIVE IN A BORE HOLE

distance of 100 to 125 feet ahead of the foremost trench. These inclined tunnels or galleries must be pushed to a point directly underneath the enemy's trench, where a chamber is excavated and the explosive mine placed, as shown in the illustrations herewith.

The rapidity of advance of one of these tunnels, of course, depends upon the amount and kind of excavating material to be dealt with, which makes it necessary to keep their dimensions as small as possible; in fact, only large enough to allow the removal of the earth and rock. Usually they are as small as 3 feet wide and 4 feet 6 inches high. Sometimes, even, the men content themselves with a space only 3 feet high by 30 inches wide, where the distance to be covered does not exceed about 100 feet. Of course, such a tunnel is not made regular in cross section, and the men are obliged to work in a stooping position, owing to the contracted headroom. Where the ground is soft and likely to cave in, it is necessary to place timbering at frequent intervals and a wooden roof.

As the tunnel advances, small cars are

loaded with the rock and earth removed, and withdrawn up the slope, at the top of which they are dumped and disposed of through trenches in such a manner as not to attract the attention of the enemy. If the tunnel has been extended to the desired point without detection by the enemy, suitable explosives can be placed; but it frequently happens that the sound made by the workers is heard by the enemy in his trenches, in which case the latter will countermine in the direction from which the sound seems to come and, if possible, cause the destruction of the work that had been intended for his own undoing.

In favorable ground a mine tunnel can be advanced from fifteen to twenty feet in a day of twenty-four hours, but in hard ground this rate of advance may be reduced to only three feet, which, of course, is discouragingly slow. It is possible to increase the rate of progress by the use of electric drills, but the space is so restricted and the difficulty of bringing in and placing such a machine is so great that its use is often impracticable.

THE SCIENCE OF THE DIN OF BATTLE

TO *La Revue des Deux Mondes* M. Charles Nordmann, who is one of the scientific experts in the French War Ministry, contributes an essay on the "Noises of Battle," which contains certain very novel and striking facts. A classical experiment made at Amsterdam showed that, in cold, still air, sound travels just over 1000 feet a second; as the temperature rises, sound travels faster. This fact is used to fix the distance of thunderstorms; if five seconds elapse between flash and crash, the storm is one

mile off; ten seconds' interval indicates two miles, and so on. The same fact can be used, and is used, to determine the distance of artillery; and, in the Crimean war, the noise of the Russian mortars was the signal for the English assailants to take cover.

But, with modern guns and rifles, which have very high muzzle velocities, it was noted that the sound of the explosion which drove the shell or bullet appeared to arrive at the same time as the projectile; and, where the muzzle velocity was twice, or even

three or four times the velocity of sound it appeared as if sound traveled, in the case of these projectiles, twice, thrice, or four times as fast as the normal velocity of sound in air—a conclusion clearly inadmissible.

An Austrian artillerist, Captain Mach, set himself to solve the problem, which had been already noted by Frenchmen; he discovered that the detonation heard in the case of high velocity shells and bullets, simultaneously with their arrival, is not really the detonation of the gun or rifle, but is a second sound, caused by the drive of the bullet or shell through the air, which, therefore, naturally goes forward with the bullet and at the same speed. The air-waves thus caused by high velocity bullets and shells, called "Mach waves," in honor of their interpreter, have even been photographed. Two wires are fixed parallel at the gun-muzzle; the gun is fired, and the bullet, touching, for a minute fraction of time, both wires at once completes an electric circuit, releasing a powerful spark, which prints the image of the bullet on the photographic plate. A film of condensed air is shown in front of the nose of the bullet, and streaming behind it in a gradually widening cone. The condensation and subsequent rarefaction of the air causes the sharp crack which travels forward

with the bullet; but only so long as the bullet has a velocity higher than the normal velocity of sound in still air; higher, that is, than 1000 feet a second. As the bullet or shell slows down, a time comes when the detonation of the gun catches up with it, and presently passes it; the sound arrives first, so that those who hear it can get out of the way. Long guns, generally speaking, which have high muzzle velocities, produce the Mach waves; short guns and mortars, with low muzzle velocity, do not.

M. Nordmann recalls the fact that, in the case of meteors which have exploded, observers many miles apart have testified that the explosion was immediately over their heads. But what they really heard was the crack of the Mach wave, generated by the meteor, which enters the earth's atmosphere with a velocity many times greater than that of sound in air, and travels forward with the meteor, thus reaching scattered observers simultaneously and giving each the illusion of an explosion just overhead. It is amusing that M. Nordmann recalls a passage in Jules Verne's "A Trip to the Moon" to criticize it. Jules Verne makes the hissing of the descending projectile precede it. But this, in view of its velocity under gravitation, is an error.

COMPENSATION FOR WAR-DAMAGED WORKS OF ART

THE world has shuddered at the irreparable damage done in the present conflict to many of those pictures, statues, or architectural monuments which constitute a priceless heritage and a sacred trust for posterity as records of humanity's spiritual aspirations and achievements. It is not strange, therefore, that there is a movement on foot in France to make one of the articles of peace an agreement to make just compensation for damaged works of art. At the head of the movement is the secretary of the International Commission of Public Art, who contributes an article upon this subject to the October number of *La Revue* (Paris). The article is commented upon editorially in the following words:

The economic defense of the Allies, after the conclusion of peace, requires to be completed by a defense of their treasures of art. The "civilized" cannot neglect this essential side of the reparations due from the Central Empires.

The idea advanced by M. Eug. Broerman, the eminent secretary of *L'Oeuvre Internationale de l'Art Public*, deserves not only to be taken into consideration, but also to be proclaimed during the war, and rigorously realized at the time of definite adjustment.

The most interesting feature of M. Broerman's proposal is that reparation should be in kind, rather than by cash—in other words, that the great museums of Germany and Austria should be made to give up some of their treasures to replace those lost in the bombardment of French and Flemish towns. As to the historic immunity of art treasures he says:

In the name of the principles of *Public Art* and the *Accord of Nations*, which were promulgated in 1898 in a First International Congress held at Brussels under the presidency of the ministers, A. Beernaert and Léon Bourgeois—an accord consecrated by four International Congresses at Paris, at Liège, at Aix-la-Chapelle, at Ghent, at Antwerp, at Ypres, from 1898 to 1911—



Photograph by Paul Thompson

BRITISH SOLDIERS ADMIRING FRENCH CARVINGS MUTILATED AS RESULT OF GERMAN SHELL FIRE

it becomes our duty, in virtue of a mandate issued to us at Liège in 1905, to defend this *Accord of Nations* against the abominable war made upon historical monuments.

Our principles of the historic right of nations, formulated in pronouncements defining the public duty towards the public interests and benefits of art, were erected by the powers into *International Law and Regulations of War*. Their plenipotentiaries at The Hague decreed . . . that which we desired for each nation and for peace:

The integral and sanctioned safeguarding of the real and personal national properties of civilization.

The immunity of architecture, historic monuments, charitable establishments, works of art and of science was solemnly proclaimed and imposed upon future belligerents in precise and formal stipulations. Two conditions were made with regard to this immunity for monuments and cities:

They shall not be defended, nor shall they serve military purposes . . .

• • • • •

The Germanic Empires, violators of the law in whose formation they collaborated, should be constrained to repair all ravages. Material damages are computable, and there is confiscated property which should be completely restored, but the masterpieces of ancient monumental art, annihilated or gravely mutilated, are forever lost for art, for history, and for life!

The loss is irremediable and inestimable. Neither gold nor territory can compensate it. However, the law of nations, the usages of civilization, and the exigencies of the public conscience invoked by the pact of the powers to complete their war legislation, demand a repara-

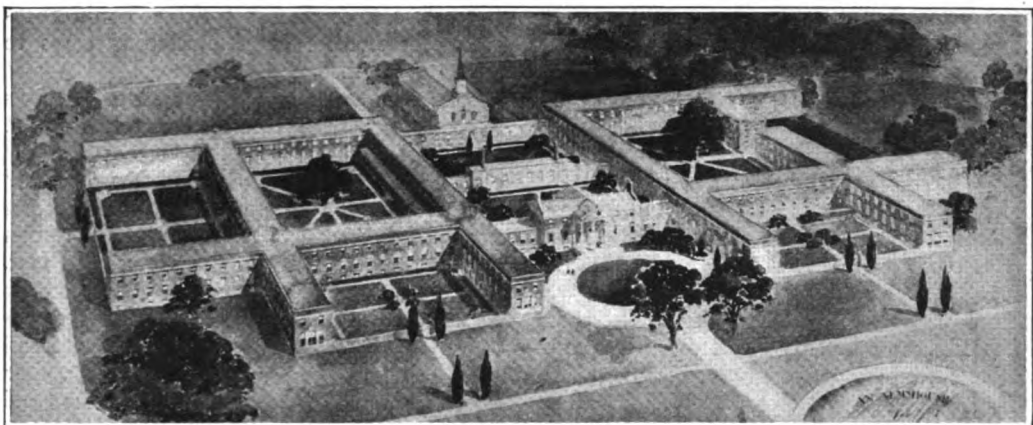
tive justice for artistic as well as for material damages.

We announce a solution worthy of the admirable races which have sacrificed themselves for honor and whose great past forbids them to complete the work of the vandals by demolishing that which remains by substituting *pastiches* which are injurious both to history and to art.

Ancient art cannot be *manufactured*. The function of a destroyed monument should be indemnified by another edifice on another site, but monumental ruins must be respected, which demonstrates the irremediable nature of the artistic misfortune of ruined monuments. The only compensation possible for the psychic historical value and the value to national civilization would be that ordained by a *condition d'art de la paix*—restitution to the Franco-Belgian and to French territory of all the specimens of their pictorial art of the Middle Ages and of the Renaissance. Their museums are gorged with the masterpieces of the Flemish primitives, of Rubens, and of his pupils. The French masters of the eighteenth century are represented above all in the imperial gallery of Potsdam. The other museums possess some 50 paintings, whose marvellous grace should return to the France that engendered it . . .

The museums of Berlin, Dresden, Cassel, Munich, Vienna, are not German and Austrian museums. They are museums of the genius of the west and south of Europe—essentially they are Belgian, Dutch, and Italian.

Most of the *chef d'œuvres* found in them are there as the result of political rapes or abuses. The *Pinakothek*, of Munich, in its entirety is the result of a transfer, Germanically instigated, at the time when Düsseldorf was about to become French by virtue of an exchange of territory in 1805. This collection had been formed by the Dukes of Julien, Neuburg, and Berg.



THE NEW WESTCHESTER COUNTY (N. Y.) ALMSHOUSE

(The arrangement of corridors, giving on courts, is expected to secure many of the advantages of the cottage type of institution)

A MODEL POOR FARM.

THAT much can be done by way of improvement in the administration of our poor laws has been shown during the last three years in Westchester County, New York. The story of the application of efficient methods and scientific study to county social problems by V. Everit Macy is told by Winthrop D. Lane in the *Survey* for November 4, under the title "A Rich Man in the Poorhouse." Macy has just been reelected Superintendent of the Poor on the tickets of the three leading parties, so this reformer has received the approval even of the politicians. He had been opposed in his first campaign on the ground that, being rich, he didn't need the salary of the job and could have little sympathy for the poor!

On being first elected three years ago, he resigned from some thirty business and other organizations to devote himself entirely to his new work. His late opponent had been a plumber, and his predecessor a butcher. When he inspected his new charge he found an institution whose eighty-year-old buildings were unsafe and unsanitary, with methods in vogue similarly ancient. More serious than the petty graft that grows up in such an institution was the laxity and neglect in both almshouse and hospital.

Inmates were admitted without medical examination of any sort, though the hospital was less than two hundred feet from the administration office. The only evidence that an inmate had left was the little red card, given him on admission, which he was supposed to relinquish when he went away; no count or census was apparently ever taken.

Mr. Macy was not surprised, therefore, to find that thirty inmates were on the records of the institution, charged to their respective towns, who were not in the almshouse at all. Some of these had died; one had been dead two years and was still being paid for by the town he had lived in. Thirty others, however, were in the institution and not upon the books.

These are only a few of the archaisms Mr. Macy found. The hospital furnished others. Its X-ray machine was too broken to be of use. It had only one room for confinement cases, so that occasionally mothers and their new-born infants had to be moved about. No record was kept of the effect of food upon inmates; scientific dietaries were, of course, unknown. Inmates cooked for the patients, and retarded rather than advanced their health. Gauze and sponges used in operations were sterilized by being boiled on the kitchen stove and then laid out to dry on the fire-escape or on wooden racks built above the furnace in a dust-filled basement. The place was a fire-trap for 180 inmates.

How he promptly remedied such defects, gathered a competent staff about him—"as unlike the staff commonly found with a county poor-law officer as the faculty of a university is unlike that of a one-room school"—kept records, systematized accounts, subjected inmates to medical and physical examination, made able-bodied men work, introduced business methods into the handling of supplies, and reduced expenses, is an interesting story. Far more important, however, are the studies he made of causes, his reforms in procedure, and his correlation and improvement of methods in the treatment of social problems in the county.

For instance:

When Mr. Macy entered office he found nearly

two hundred authorities in the county committing, or with power to commit, children as public charges to private charitable institutions. The commissioners of charity in three cities had that power; all local (township) overseers of the poor had it; four justices of the peace in each of nineteen towns had it; and, finally, police justices and city judges had it.

Mr. Macy not only prevented unnecessary commitments, but greatly reduced the number of those who were already public charges.

At Mr. Macy's suggestion a law was passed providing that no justice of the peace in Westchester County could commit a child without first notifying the superintendent, who is then allowed five days to investigate the case and report to the justice.

Last year, for example, the second of Mr. Macy's term, committing authorities referred no fewer than 435 children to the superintendent's agents for investigation before commitment. In ordinary course, under the old régime, most of these unfortunates would have been whisked off to an institution in short order; both they and the county would have been the losers thereby. But under the new procedure the agents were able to rescue three-fourths of the number from such a fate.

He kept families together by introducing the revolutionary method of helping people in their homes instead of waiting until they had been sent to his institution. When the new State law for widows' pensions came into force, creating county child welfare boards, the new board in his county found its work and appropriation unnecessary because it simply duplicated Mr. Macy's efforts and machinery. He is now helping 54 families, containing 209 children under

sixteen, and is keeping these families together at smaller expense than it takes to separate them.

The unique thing about Mr. Macy's methods has been that he has carried out many of his ideas by hiring experts at his own cost to do the work; and has then had the satisfaction of having the Board of Supervisors support him when the results proved the correctness of his views. In fact, the board's approval of the Superintendent of the Poor has extended to the appropriation of nearly \$2,000,000 for a new site and new buildings. In addition to this a new law, embodying Mr. Macy's ideas and greatly enlarging the scope and opportunities of his office, will go into effect on January 1.

Mr. Macy's work in Westchester County is bound to have a great effect on the administration of the poor law in other counties throughout the country. It is a fortunate thing that this man, with his high ideals and training, should have also possessed the means to prove the correctness of his methods, for the same things can now be confidently attempted elsewhere.

Mr. Macy has worked on the lines of a high conception of the usefulness of his office. He sees it as a central plant for the carrying on of the social service activities of the whole county, in a spirit of coöperation and with modern scientific methods.

Mr. Macy's other public services, and his personal career, as well as his recent selection to head the National Civic Federation, are dealt with in the article beginning on page 617 of this issue.

DOES THE BRAIN WORK BEST AT NIGHT?

THERE is a remarkable wealth of curious information, diverting anecdote, and entertaining quotation in the third number of a series of papers running in *La Revue* (Paris), called "Concerning Intellectual Labor." The author, Albert Cim, devotes one section of this article in the October number to a review of the penchant for working at night displayed by many eminent intellectuals, which seems to discount the German proverb that "the morning hour has gold in her mouth."

What is the most favorable hour for intellectual labor, literary, or scientific work? Many

writers, principally in Paris, prefer to work in the evening or at night, and to justify such preference, allege that at that time they do not risk being disturbed by visitors or incommoded by noise; that the calm and silence so propitious to thought at that time reign nearly everywhere and envelop one.

George Sand hardly ever wrote except at night, and always smoked cigarettes. "You know she works from midnight till four o'clock. And you know what happened to her once. A monstrous thing! One day she finished a novel at one o'clock in the morning—and she began another that very night. Turning out copy is a function with Mme. Sand." This is the malicious tongue of Edmond de Goncourt . . .

The savant Littré also worked at night; but his researches among books, notably those necessitated

by his lexicological labors, were done by day: "It is at night that M. Littré habitually works. His day is occupied by researches, academic duties, labors of medical charity when he is in the country. About half-past six in the evening, after a frugal repast, he begins to work, and for many years . . . he has never gone to bed before three a. m."

In the same way Henry Mürger, the author of "Scenes from Bohemian Life," worked only at night . . . Barthélemy Saint-Hilaire, the translator of Aristotle, "could not work easily by day unless he closed the shutters and lit his lamp," so as to make it night in his room. Our old historian Mézeray (1610-1683) had the same foible: "He was accustomed, even in summer, to close his shutters in broad midday and work by candle-light . . ." Balzac also loved to work by day with the blinds drawn, "by the light of two candles." Ordinarily, "after a frugal dinner, Balzac went to bed at six or seven, had himself called at midnight, took some black coffee . . . very strong, and worked till noon." We may add that the first Napoleon liked to work at night. . . . Also the painter, Girodet (1767-1824), who may be ranked, likewise, as a writer, since he loved poetry as much as painting, and even composed a poem called *The Painter*, was "an artist of the night. It was at night above all that the fever of inspiration seized him. Then he would leap from his bed, had lights hung in his studio, and placed on his head a vast *chapeau* surmounted by lighted candles, and thus attired, fell to work. *The Deluge*, *Galatea*, and many *chefs d'œuvre* were composed by the light of *flambeaux*."

Mr. Cim tells us, too, that many authors cannot compose except while walking, which was Goethe's habit.

Walking is, in fact, a powerful cerebral stimulant. Rousseau, "the solitary pedestrian," liked to work while walking: "There is something in the act of walking which animates and enlivens my ideas; I can scarcely think when I remain still; my body must be in motion so that my brain may be. The sight of the countryside, the succession of agreeable views, the open air, the fine appetite, the good health which I gain in walking, all this liberates my soul and gives me greater boldness of thought, etc. I devoted, as I have always done, my mornings to the copying of music, and my afternoons to a promenade, provided with my little note-book and my pencil: for I have never been able to write and think at my ease except *sub dio*; I was not tempted to change this method, and I counted on the forest of Montmorency, which was almost at my door, being my study."

But Jean-Jacques also frequently composed in bed, while suffering from insomnia. He says: "I have never been able to do anything with pen in hand and paper on the table; it is while walking, in the midst of rocks and trees, or at night . . . that I write things in my brain." One can judge how slowly, above all for a man absolutely lacking in verbal memory, and never in his life able to learn six verses by heart. This method of work—"in the head," without writing down anything—has been employed by various poets, dramatists especially. Piron composed all his tragedies in his head and recited them from memory to the actors.

Various other interesting examples are given in this entertaining and instructive essay, which also treats of habits of drinking, smoking, and so forth of men of letters.

RUY BARBOSA, LIBERAL LEADER OF BRAZIL



DR. RUY BARBOSA

THERE are many students of political history who see in the European war at bottom a conflict between two ideals of human thought and action, between the supremacy of the state with absolute control of the individual, and with the corollary of superior castes, and the supremacy of the individual, or a pure democracy, with the

state. At such an hour it is peculiarly interesting to note the direction of the sway of sympathies in the neutral countries. Such an opportunity is offered with regard to Brazil by a sympathetic study in the French magazine *La Vie* of the distinguished president of the Brazilian Academy of Letters, Dr. Ruy Barbosa, who is declared to be one of the chief Liberal leaders of the world. Though a man of letters, Ruy Barbosa is even more noted as a statesman, and wields an enormous influence.

Born at Bahia in 1849, he is not only one of the most vigorous orators who have ever employed the Portuguese language, but the leader of a great party, the Civilist party. The world prestige which the Brazilian patriot to-day enjoys comes to him less, perhaps, from his talents, which are multiple, from his knowledge, which is

state as the instrument of the individual, rather than the individual as the vassal of the

almost universal, than from his quality of a man of high civilization.

The political struggles of which his country became the theatre after the establishment of a republic, conferred upon him an experience which was ripened by exile. His sojourn among the British people completed his civic education, and his "Letters from England," published in 1896, is a work of importance.

The writer remarks that the Germans may be surprised to learn that Ruy Barbosa is, together with Thoreau and José Enrique Rodo, one of the minds produced by the Americas which have best comprehended Carlyle.

It is that Carlyle, by his veneration of heroism, has contributed to the development of the true notion of liberty. The Germans admire him because of his "Frederick II," but a Ruy Barbosa first recalls that he is the author of "Cromwell." A devotee of Carlyle and an enthusiastic admirer of Anatole France, whom he praises for having proclaimed in certain of his pages the supremacy of the heart, the fecundating virtue of sentiment, Ruy Barbosa joins energy to finesse, the impulse of enthusiasm to the minute calculations of the intelligence.

He is a man of imagination, but he is also a man of will, and it is owing, perhaps, to this

happy harmony of all his faculties that throughout his life he has been enabled to fill a mission of education at once political, social, and purely human.

There are two Germanic pretensions of which the personality of Ruy Barbosa is the living refutation: that the Latin-Americans are intellectually unworthy of being taken seriously; and that it is vain to dream of laying the foundations of international law.

One of his important works was the editing of juristic reports, which form an authority in civil and constitutional matters; he was a delegate to the Conference at The Hague in 1907, and in 1915 he became president of the "Brazilian League in Favor of the Allies."

Ambassador from his own country to Buenos Aires, he has just uttered unforgettable words revindicating in the face of the universe the sanctity of treaties and of international obligations, and standing by his side is all that is intellectually worth while in Brazil . . . He incarnates too purely the chivalrous idealism of his race to be blinded by the prestige of purely utilitarian civilizations. Wealth and power are means to serve the ends of the genius of civilization; they are not an end in themselves, and human dignity must be placed above all material advantages.

BRAZIL ALSO UNPREPARED

WE have in a leading South American country a striking instance of "unpreparedness," and some details relating thereto, as well as the suggestion of a possible remedy, are given by Lieutenant Mario Clementino in an article republished by the new Brazilian monthly *Revista do Brazil*.

With an extent of territory slightly larger than that of the United States, excluding Alaska, and a population of about 25,000,000, Brazil's permanent army falls somewhat short of 20,000 men. As the term of service is two years, less than 10,000 young men are enrolled annually. The writer draws attention to the fact that, under these conditions, it would not even be safe to assume that at the end of ten years the country would have a trained reserve of 100,000 men, as there would have to be deducted from this number those who died or who became unfit for service, and also those who married and founded families, as these latter are placed by law in a privileged reserve class and cannot be called out immediately in case of war.

How unsatisfactory that result is becomes

apparent when we consider that each year 250,000 young men in Brazil reach the military age. Deducting 25 per cent. from this number to cover the necessary exemptions, there remain 200,000 capable of bearing arms and who ought to receive military training, and yet, as has been seen, 190,000 of them receive no military instruction whatever.

The writer notes that in Argentina, where similar difficulties have been encountered in the attempt to organize an adequate army, resort has been had to the formation of numerous rifle clubs, the necessary instruction being imparted in eighty-eight colleges, universities, and academies. In 1911, those who profited by this training numbered 231,743, and in 1915 the number had increased to 313,474. Thus in a few years Argentina will have from 600,000 to 800,000 trained marksmen, whose services can be immediately utilized. Lieutenant Clementino urges that this example be followed by Brazil, and that the training be carried on under the direct supervision of the Ministry of War, so that it may be methodically and systematically given.

CHILE AND PERU: THEIR RELATIONS TO FOREIGN TRADE

UNDOUBTEDLY the trade relations of Chile and Peru with each other, as well as with Europe and with Canada and the United States, will be matters of tremendous economic interest in both hemispheres immediately after the war.

A writer in *Le Correspondant* (Paris, October 15) takes time by the forelock, urging upon French business men the advantages of forestalling Germany and the United States in the effort to secure commercial advantages in the rival republics. Of peculiar interest in this country is the final portion of this long article, which is headed "Prospects of To-Morrow." The opening sentence of this makes the charge that the Teutonic nations, finding themselves at this juncture powerless to carry on direct relations with Chile and Peru, are pursuing their familiar tactics, as in Brazil and Argentina, of establishing indirect relations by means of Germano-America houses, thus coöperating in the economic struggle against the interests of the Allies. The anonymous writer continues:

It is necessary, therefore, that French and English efforts should be coördinated without delay, in order to oppose to this action the financial prerogative of London and the industrial ingenuity of France, even in the forcibly restricted degree permitted by the military utilization of most of their apparatus. It is advisable that France should organize direct and rapid lines of navigation, capable of replacing the German freight boats as soon as the war is over.

The European impoverishment of territories, yesterday cultivated and prosperous, to-day devastated by the war, may require to-morrow the beneficial energy of the nitrates with which Chile is replete, assuring a return freight for the European boats charged with carrying European products to the Pacific coast.

By the creation of the new road *via* the Panama Canal, by the easier traffic between the two Americas, a traffic made necessary by the suspension of commercial relations between Europe and Latin America during the war, as well as by the rôle which Japan has played during this war and which she may continue to play, the Pacific is destined to acquire a tenfold importance in the political and commercial traffic of the future. It is important that France and England should not find themselves after the war in a like situation of inferiority as regards Germany on the one hand and the United States on the other.

It is still impossible to foresee what will be the moral and political attitude of Chile and Peru in the future. At present the memories of the Pacific war still separate the two republics, in spite of the generous efforts made by the

noblest souls of the two countries to create a loyal political and economic *entente*. Formerly German prestige . . . gave that nation a sentiment of confidence which may well be modified after the definite defeat of Germany. But it must not be forgotten that Germany, beaten in Europe, deprived of her African colonies, will make a more desperate effort than ever to regain in South America a portion of the losses she has sustained . . . ; she may, as of old, foment a rivalry between the Latin-American republics of South America, a rivalry which was not necessary when she saw herself in possession of a growing influence on the continent whose political destinies she thought one day to direct by means of economic controls.

The writer here quotes a passage from the Peruvian author, F. Garcia-Calderon, apropos of the possible situation between Peru and Chile. This is in substance an appeal to both countries to bury the hatchet, realizing that their natural gifts are complementary and that union means strength. It closes thus:

The confederation of the Pacific, formed by Peru, Bolivia, and Chile, would prevent future wars in America. Unhappily, Chile pretends to impose its authority, founded upon victory, just as, after the German confederation, warlike and victorious Prussia assumed domination over artistic Bavaria.

After this apt citation the writer resumes his argument that France and Great Britain should make strenuous efforts to wrest from Germany her previous commercial advantages in these lands, and that they should studiously emulate the commercial and financial methods practised by Germany which have won the confidence of South American business men.

Germany's manner of treating small European nations has opened the eyes of certain South Americans . . . with regard to German plans concerning their own country. Franco-English prestige has not only increased, but multiplied, in these countries where political intelligence and imagination are lively, and where the sentiment of liberty is more ardent than that of discipline.

Singular as it may appear, certain South American minds, before the war, regarded the growing influence of Germany as a means of counterbalancing the influence of the United States and its increasing intrusion into the affairs of the Latin republics; in certain respects this opinion may have some semblance of justice. But after the war the interests of Germany and the United States in South America will be identical. Hence it is necessary that England and France should learn to play also on the Pacific coast of South

America the rôle of guarantors of the rights and interests of the divers Latin republics, a rôle to which they are entitled not merely by the rôle they have sustained in the eyes of the whole world during two years of war, but by their financial-commercial interests in these regions, by the part they have taken in the establishment of these republics themselves, by the intellectual affinities which they discover and by the assurance they give that none of their economic and political acts is hostile, but is on the contrary entirely favorable to the greatest of independent futures of the South American nations.

As far as concerns French interests, it is to be hoped, first of all, that the French banks can compete with and replace the affiliated branches of the Deutsche Bank and allow these countries, still so rich in promise, to develop their economic powers by direct exchange with France, and no longer . . . by the intervention of German banks, commercial organizations, and agents. It is also to be hoped, particularly for Peru, that the sending of French professors may be facilitated, who in going to take account on the spot of the resources to France offered by these countries, will bind more closely the ties between them and France, and will bear witness to Peruvian students as much as to the intellectuals them-

selves of the interest taken by France in their opinions and sentiments.

Perhaps it is above all advisable that the coming of South American students to France should rather be solicited, for law and letters as well as for the sciences; certain South American writers, greatly attached to France, have already proposed the creation at Paris of a group of South American students; this is a plan in which the public authorities in France would do well to interest themselves. It must not be lost sight of that if Germany had succeeded in taking such an ascendancy in certain South American *milieux* . . . it is because she had brought to the task an energy and a follow-up spirit as tenacious as on the continent of Europe, and that while profoundly despising the Latin races she was zealous to display towards them a hypocritical amiability—and that the Latin races are not among those least susceptible to flattery.

There is no need in France to feign an interest for the Latin republics of the Pacific coast—such an interest springs naturally from consideration of the facts; it will suffice that French public opinion should be better enlightened as to the interests of France in this region, and as to considerable opportunities still open there to her activities. . . .

RABINDRANATH TAGORE, POET OF THE INDIAN PEOPLE

A COMPREHENSIVE biography of Rabindranath Tagore by a fellow countryman, Mr. K. S. Ramaswami Sastri,¹ gives a more complete interpretation of his genius than it is perhaps possible for an English critic or biographer to undertake. Mr. Sastri writes of Tagore's artistic and spiritual ancestry, and of his share in the new Indian Renaissance now going on, and observes that if the European Renaissance was the release of the human spirit *per se*, that of India is the liberation of the human spirit that is in harmony with the divine, and that the genius of the great Bengali poet focalizes the gathering of the forces that will give new birth to liberty.

The spirit of mankind recovering consciousness and the spirit of self-determination recognizing the beauty of the outer world and of the body through art, liberating reason in science and the conscience in religion, restoring culture to the intelligence and establishing the principle of political freedom.

He emphasizes the fact that Tagore is a poet of the people, whose artistic labors have resulted in practical benefit to the toiling millions of India. He explains the mysticism in Tagore's writings that often puzzles

Western readers, and he finds in this mysticism light on the destiny of the human soul. In Tagore's conception of womanhood, he sees the sure test of his art. This conception, while essentially Indian, is yet abreast with the most chivalrous ideals of the poets of the West.

A portion of the radiance that surrounds a woman in the eyes of man is the light of his own soul. . . . Love is not passion, but the very soul of goodness.

After an exposition of Tagore's social gospel in which he admonishes reformers that "the strength of a race is limited; if we nourish the ignoble, we are bound to starve the noble," the writer proceeds to a detailed analysis of his literary achievements, illustrating his text with many quotations.

Without offense to the spirit and the labors of Mr. Ernest Rhys, who has written an admirable life of the Hindu poet, Mr. Sastri's work is in several respects a more satisfying exposition of the genius of Tagore and will be of great assistance to the student of his teachings.

While Tagore is at the present time lecturing in the United States, not all of his readers will be fortunate enough to hear him expound his philosophy and explain his

¹ Sir Rabindranath Tagore. By K. S. Ramaswami Sastri. Ganesh & Co. Madras, India.

poetry. To those who cannot have this opportunity this book will present his dower of imagination, his innate spirituality, and the supreme grace of a mind that combines the deepest religious aspirations and love of humanity with the dynamic practical power to plan for humanity's liberation from the ancient fetters that enchain mankind to less than noble ideals.

A new volume of Tagore's poems remarkable for their deep spirituality, "Fruit Gathering,"¹ in effect a sequel to his most popular work, "Gitanjali," will delight all lovers of poetry. A collection of stories in prose, "The Hungry Stones and Other Stories," is noted on page 679 of this number.

¹Fruit Gathering. By Rabindranath Tagore. Macmillan, 123 pp. \$1.25.

"MACBETH" IN JAPAN

THREE Shakespearean plays have been translated into the Japanese language—"Hamlet," "Othello," and "Macbeth." In describing a performance of "Macbeth," given at the Imperial Theater at Tokio in an article in the *Theater* magazine for November, Eloise Roorbach writes that we must understand the labor and the tremendous innovation to the Japanese stage required by such a performance. It represents the transition that is taking place in methods of dramatic art in Japan. At present Japanese players are divided between the conservatism of the stilted mannerisms of the sacred *No* drama and the modern realistic methods of the West. The Imperial troupe of players compromises between the old and the new schools. There were about one hundred actors in the cast of "Macbeth," and it was first necessary for them, before the actual study of the lines, to learn new methods of posturing, new gestures, different bowing, and salutation, to walk, sit, rise in a new way. Likewise the scenery, lights, costumes, and music were all innovations to the art of the theater as previously practised in Japan.

The translating of "Macbeth" into Japanese was the work of two brilliant scholars, Dr. Tsubouchi and Dr. Mori. Japanese scholars with whom I talked after one of the performances which I had the pleasure of attending, told me that the translation was almost faultless. It was not possible, they said, to render some of the words into Japanese and preserve Shakespeare's meaning.

To the Japanese in the audience unacquainted with English a literal translation would be meaningless; the great barrier of customs and traditions prevent a word for word translation. For instance, as explained, such words as "devil," "witch," "hell," do not excite the same emotions in the Japanese as they do with us. When Lady Macbeth says "it is too full o' the milk of human kindness," she is unintelligible to them. "To catch the nearest way," must also be liberally translated.

Others are easily understood. Macbeth's cry of surprise in presence of the witches, beginning with "What are these?" and ending with "Live

you or are you aught than man may question?" meet instant response. "The sleeping and the dead are but as pictures, 'tis the eye of childhood that fears a painted devil," is as effective in Japanese as English.

The acting, though amateurish at times, was on the whole quite remarkable. The costumes were accurate and excellent in every detail. The first scene in the first act and the witches' cave were remarkably well done. There was fine color in the throne and banquet room. Wherever suggestiveness, imagination and color was required they triumphed; but wherever realism or perspective was demanded they failed.

Mr. Kato, the Macbeth, is regarded as the most talented Shakespearean actor in Japan. He won great renown for his playing of Polonius in "Hamlet." Madame Uraji Yamakawa, as the queen, showed good dramatic power at times, but presented a most remarkably untraditional sleep-walking scene.



POSTER USED IN JAPAN FOR THE ANNOUNCEMENT OF A PERFORMANCE OF "MACBETH"

SEMYEN FRUG—THE JEREMIAH OF MODERN JEWRY

THERE went down into his grave on September 20, in Odessa, Russia, the greatest of Jewish poets in the Russian tongue, Semyen Grigoryevitch Frug. Coming soon after the recent death in New York of Sholem Aleichem, the Jewish Mark Twain, the news of Frug's death convulsed the Jewish world with the most poignant emotions, for Frug, the poet of Jewish sorrow, died in one of the most tragical periods in the history of the European Jews. The Russian and American Jewish press echoed these emotions in a most stirring manner. The *Evreyskaya Zhizn*, of Petrograd, said:

We stand at his grave with inexpressible pain in our heart and with our eyes dimmed by grief. In these last years the Jews have not had one single bright day, the blows falling uninterruptedly on the heart of the people. Many of our best sons died in this atmosphere of nervous prostration and agitation, but in spite of that the news of Frug's death struck us with especial acuteness and force.

We have the condolence that he is alive in his creations, that in the days of sorrow and the days of joy his song will resound in the heart of the people, that opening his book one will find his soul speaking. But still one's heart aches and one's thought will not acquiesce in the fact that he is no more.

There has ended the life of a man to whose lot it fell to become the poet of a people in bondage.

Semyen Frug was born in 1860 in a Jewish colony in the province of Kherson, South Russia. In that village he passed his boyhood and grew into a man. Early he demonstrated his poetic genius, but his father did not approve of his son's poetic call. In 1879 Frug's first poem appeared in *Razsvet* (Petrograd). It attracted wide attention. The subsequent poems of Frug were awaited with impatience. Those early writings were characterized by a healthy optimism and an unbounded love for nature. But a sudden change was soon to take place in Frug's view of life and of the Jewish future. The history of the Russian Jews took a sharp turn toward the worse. In 1881-82 the first series of pogroms broke out throughout Russia. A new epoch in the history of the Jew was inaugurated. First, there came the reign of darkness and oppression in Russia; second, there was born the Palestinian movement; third, the Jewish emigration to America began. Woe and hope became the leading motifs in Jewish life, remaining so uninter-

ruptedly up to the present time. Frug became the singer, the prophet, the reflector of these leading motifs.

To review the literary accomplishments of Frug means to write the history of the last three and a half decades, to unroll the scroll of these days, unequaled in their events and experiences. Frug immortalized these years in his poems; they are a monument to the sorrow and hopes of the last generations.

The appearance of Frug in our history coincides with one of the most distressing periods in the history of the Russian Jews. After long calm a terrific storm shook our people, coming as the forerunner of still more storms. In hopeless despair, with a feeling of shameful powerlessness, helplessness, and homelessness, did the Russian Jew cast about in search of an exit to safety. In those days did Frug first appear among us. There was the breath of the boundless Steppe, the odor and fragrance of his village's soil in his first poems. Intoxicated with the beauty of our ancient legends and Biblical figures, Frug entered life to sing in grand and mighty rhythm the songs of Zion in a foreign tongue. But the poet was soon thrown down from the world of dreams and imagination. The bloody reality of Jewish life cruelly awakened him, and his lyre was drunk with poison and venom.

Thus L. Yaffe, a well-known Jewish poet of to-day. It is also worthy of notice that the leading critics in Russian literature conceded Frug an honorable seat on their literary Parnassus. Frug wrote also in Yiddish and Hebrew, but most of his creations were in the Russian language. He liked biblical themes, and some of his lighter poems on these themes have become so popular among the Russian Jews that children are being lulled to sleep with them. His passion for Zion knew no limits. The regeneration of the Jewish people in Palestine and of their ancient Hebrew tongue was the subject of many of his best lyrical creations. The sufferings and torments of the Jew in the "pale" have been sung by Frug in verses that are as cutting and as bitter as those of grief-stricken Jeremiah's.

The deep-rooted religious customs among the Russian Jews, the melancholy and forlorn life of the child of the ghetto, the miracle tales accumulated by the Jew during the centuries of his wandering—all these have been incorporated in beautiful verse in the Jewish literature by Frug. Tens of thousands of children poured out in Odessa at the poet's funeral. Business in Odessa was paralyzed during Frug's funeral procession.

ITALY AND THE INTELLECTUAL LIFE

IN *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), Prof. A. Marinoni, of the University of Arkansas, makes an eloquent appeal to his countrymen in favor of a more convincing demonstration in the United States of Italy's title to hold a high rank in the intellectual life of the modern world. He finds that in Italy, even among cultured Italians, there has existed an undue sense of diffidence as to the extent and quality of Italy's contribution to this life, while in foreign lands the assertion has only too often been made that although Italy can claim the primacy as an exporter of human material, she is a dependent in regard to all else.

For the writer, the Italian emigration, instead of being a phenomenon of strength, only results from the hard necessity imposed in great part by the economic disorganization of the home country, and by the inadequacy of Italy's social legislation; and he trusts that when the war is over, Italy will not only send her sons forth to the world, but to a hundredfold greater degree, her products and her culture.

That the excellent work done by the professors in Italy's many universities should fail to receive its due recognition abroad, is, in Professor Marinoni's opinion, partly owing to their disinclination to present their views in a more popular form, in one more in accord with the custom of our day. Moreover, greater and more systematic efforts should be made to encourage the translation into other languages of the original contributions of Italian thought in so many different branches of knowledge.

As to what more intimately regards the proposed propaganda in the United States, the writer considers that in Italy a commission should be formed, in which all the university centers of Italy can be represented, the University of Rome being made the permanent headquarters. In this way unity and continuity of action can be attained. This permanent body is to be charged with the examination of all questions relating to the proposed movement, and in order that whatever course of action may be decided upon shall prove effective, the participation of one or more delegates from leading American universities at the deliberations would be indispensable. Professor Marinoni has perfect confidence that any person invited to such participation would freely accept.

One of the most important questions is that regarding an exchange of professors.

Here the example set by France may serve as a model, and there could be organized in Italy a bureau similar to the French *Office d'Informations et d'Etudes* in the French Ministry of Instruction, which would be charged with the conclusion of the requisite arrangements for exchanges. By this means the end in view could be attained most effectively and at least expense.

The writer, however, does not have in view merely an exchange of a series of conferences, but the reciprocal engagement in Italy and in the United States of real university instructors, who, by giving a limited course in one or more universities, would arouse a durable interest in the subject. Here, what has been looked upon as the chief difficulty, presents itself, namely, the question of language. The writer is firmly opposed to any polyglottism, and he believes that the Italian envoys of culture should always speak in their own language, more especially in the more popular lectures, for he considers this to be at once more dignified, and more useful, than any painful striving for adequate expression in an unfamiliar tongue. In this connection he cites the experience of Ferrero and others, who have demonstrated that it is quite unnecessary to use any other language than Italian; indeed, to follow any other course would be to miss the chief aim of the Italian propaganda, which is to make a knowledge of Italian as indispensable for the acquirement of a broad culture as a knowledge of French or German.

In conclusion, the writer thus presents one of the main projects of the movement:

And now we come to a question which we have particularly at heart, and which in our judgment represents one of the cardinal points of the entire program. This is nothing less than the founding of an Italian institute in the United States. Is this too hazardous an enterprise and one beyond our power? The answer is not easily given. Certainly the financial conditions, upon which must depend to a great extent the solution of the problem, are difficult and complex enough to give us food for thought, but still they are not such as to shake our faith in the success that would assuredly attend the bold enterprise we urge.

In this matter also the experience of France should be for us at once a counsel and an encouragement. French schools have been founded in Madrid and in Burgos, by the universities of Toulouse and Bordeaux, and from the University of Grenoble sprang the famous *Institut Français* of Florence which, modest and almost private in its beginnings, soon became a great national establishment.

THE NEW BOOKS

VERSE AND VERSE-MAKERS

ROBERT FROST again writes of rural New England in his third book of verse, "Mountain Interval." In this collection of poems there are many of the same type as those of "North of Boston," and a group of lyrics that show the ripening of the lyrical gift revealed to us in an earlier work, "A Boy's Will." The particular "interval" of which he writes is that of the south branch of the Ammonoosuc River just under the Franconia Notch. In "Out, Out—," he has given us the quality of the country and etched the landscape in six lines.

"The buzz-saw snarled and rattled in the yard
And made dust and dropped stove-length sticks
of wood,
Sweet-scented stuff when the breeze blew across it.
And from there those that lifted eyes could count
Five mountain ranges one behind the other
Under the sunset far into Vermont."

The simplicity and naïve colloquialisms of the speech of Frost's New England natives, by means of a poetic art almost classical in its restraint, bring out the essential spirituality of their lives which he feels in part to be a quality of the land that bore them. To bring this out clearly, their voices in his poetry are interpenetrated with the sounds of not only the workaday world, but of wind in the trees and the sounds of brooks and falling leaves. One feels that his revelation of the poesy of this rustic locality shows the immense dignity of a man's human cleavage to the spot where he was born, and to the ordinary happenings of his daily life.

"The Great Valley," a new collection of poems by Edgar Lee Masters, follows upon the success of the "Spoon River Anthology" and "Songs and Satires." You may reject the author as a poet if you do not appreciate free verse and still find keen zest in the material of this book. It is American—in the main—with some few exceptions that had wisely been omitted—and it spades deep into the soil of our constructive nationalism that has been almost forgotten by the younger generation. Some poems that may be read solely for the sake of recollections are "Fort Dearborn" and that one on "Captain John Whistler," who built Fort Dearborn in 1803 and was the grandfather of James MacNeill Whistler. Other poems, such as "The Lincoln and Douglas Debates," "Autochthon," "Grant and Logan," "Gobineau to Tree," "Come Republic," "Robert G. Ingersoll," and the remarkable pen portraits of Theodore Dreiser and John Cowper Powys, are representative of the rich vein of the author's literary talent. Out of the lyrics "The Tavern" and "The Garden" are especially praiseworthy.

"The Harvest Moon" is the first book of verse published by Josephine Preston Peabody since the success of her comedy, "The Wolf of Gubbio." It is mainly expressive of the tumult of a woman's mind and soul stirred by the events of the war. The poems of children are unsurpassed among those of modern poets. The deep responsibility of both physical and spiritual motherhood—woman's debt to child and to mankind is expressed in exquisite music.

Amy Lowell's stories in verse, published under the title of "Men, Women, and Ghosts," are remarkable for the revelation of her attitude toward the universe, which is that of a faithful photographer. The poems range from sustained narratives in metrical stanzas to elaborations in polyphonic prose, a dramatic form which the author favors. Her rhythms attempt to represent movement, patterns, color, tone, light, shade, the whole pageantry of the animate universe. Her virility, invention, and power to penetrate into the bizarre and the grotesque are nothing short of marvelous, but emotion is lacking where one most expects to find it. "Patterns" has emotion; it escapes into the universal, but rarely does her rainbow shower of scintillating imagery become eloquent with the pulse of the life of the domain beyond the immediate senses. An egocentric imagination controls the poesy, but for study of prose rhythms, *vers libre*, and other experimentation in poetry, one cannot do better than to read Miss Lowell's book.

James Oppenheim came before the public a few years ago as a poet who loved his fellow men, and one whose free verse possessed undeniable lyric freedom and power. His second book, "War and Laughter," has poetic fervor and in some sections a captivating gayety and sheer sunniness. For this last attribute he may be called the Sorolla among poets. In the more vigorous verse manhood's challenge to itself is crystallized, and in his analysis of war the internal strife of the soul is portrayed as the one and sole cause of external wars. He has realized that laughter is really a means toward salvation and that the knowledge of the worst that is in us sometimes saves our souls. This volume is one of the best of the year. It is but slightly marred by tricks of contrast and colloquialism.

"The Witch of Endor," a poetic drama of Saul, by Robert Norwood, is rich in imaginative power. The author's gift for sonorous blank verse is equaled by the beauty of his lyrics that bring

¹ The Harvest Moon. By Josephine Preston Peabody. Houghton, Mifflin. \$1.25.

² Men, Women, and Ghosts. By Amy Lowell. Macmillan. 363 pp. \$1.

³ War and Laughter. By James Oppenheim. Century. 215 pp. \$1.25.

⁴ The Witch of Endor. By Robert Norwood. Doran. 121 pp. \$1.25.

¹ Mountain Interval. By Robert Frost. Holt. 99 pp. \$1.25.

² The Great Valley. By Edgar Lee Masters. Macmillan. 280 pp. \$1.25.

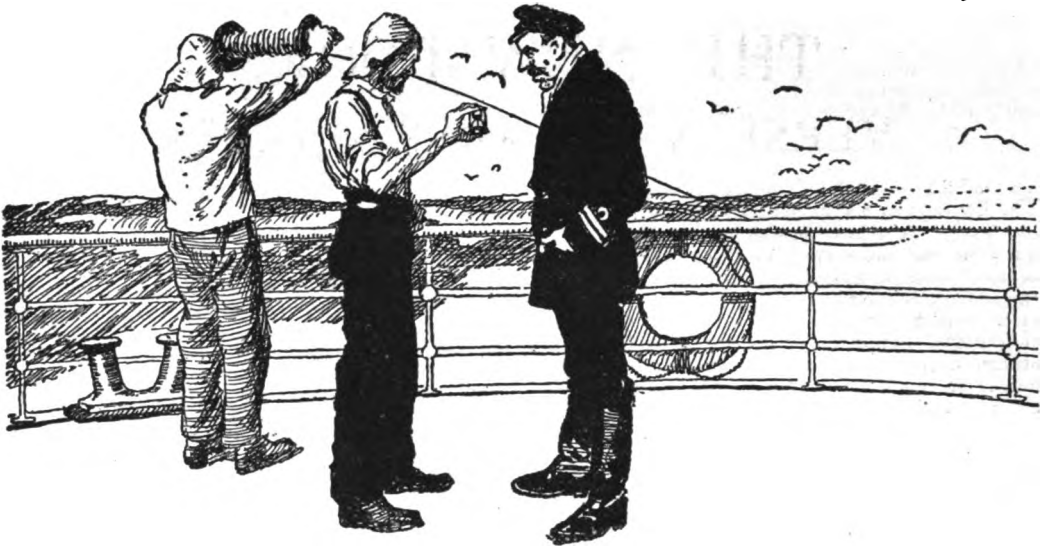


ILLUSTRATION (BY CHARLES PEARS) FROM MASEFIELD'S "SALT WATER POEMS AND BALLADS"

"She'll log a giddy seventeen and battle out the reel.
The weight of all the run-out line will be a thing to
feel,

As the bacca-quidding shell-back shambles aft to take
the wheel,
And the seasick little middy strikes the bell."

to mind the Song of Solomon. Throughout the drama the excellent influence of the King James Scripture is apparent in the purity and rhythmic quality of the diction. Mr. Norwood is rector of the Memorial Church in London, Canada. Three books of poems published previously have established his right to a place in the group of the few real poets of to-day.

The inimitable "Salt Water Poems and Ballads" by John Masefield, together with all the sea pieces from other collections of verse, poems such as "Sea Fever," "The River," "Ships," and "Cargoes," and two new poems, "The Ship and Her Makers" and "The New Bedford Whaler," are published in a beautiful new edition, illustrated with twelve color-plates and twenty in black and white by Charles Pears. A new departure in gift books for all lovers of rhymes of the sea.

Mr. William Butler Yeats expresses his feeling for the Ireland of to-day with energy and power in his new collection of verse—"Responsibilities, and Other Poems." In a note that has bearing on the prefatory poem he reviews briefly the various controversies within his memory, political, literary, and artistic, and finds that they have shown that "neither religion nor politics can of itself create a mind with enough receptivity to become wise or just and generous enough to make a nation. . . . Religious Ireland thinks of divine things as a round of duties separated from life, and not as an element that may be discovered in all circumstance and emotion, while political Ireland sees the good citizen but as a man who holds to certain opinions, and not as a man of good will."

The disillusion of these new poems is felt in their mingled rhythms. Formerly Yeats has been able to use colloquial phrases to the betterment of his music; now his colloquial directness evokes thought rather than emotion. The poems must still be estimated with the greatest Irish poetry; they have rare returns to the old, cloudy loveliness, but in the main the philosopher has mastered the singer. "In dreams begin responsibility" is his quotation. To the thinker these new strains will come like quiet friends who, knowing both the best and the worst of life, accept that which is with reverence and wonder. Yeats has had too much intellectual pride to give us shaped beauty that has not lain in his mind. In the play now revised by Mr. Yeats, "The Hourglass," published in this volume, are lines expressive of the feeling that permeates this comprehensive group of poems:

"The stream of the world has changed its course,
And with the stream my thoughts have run
Into some cloudy, thunderous spring
That is its mountain source—
Aye, to some frenzy of the mind,
For all that we have done's undone,
Our speculation but as the wind."

A new edition of "Wild Earth,"³ the thin book of verse that established Padraic Colum as one of the greatest interpreters of peasant thought and feeling in Ireland, is issued with the additions of several poems of a more recent date. Synge's plays are mannered in comparison with these poems that, scorning artifice, dig dreams from the hearts of the humble. Several lyrics have such perfect tune one can substitute a syllable for the words and still catch the intrinsic melody.

There is authentic poetry in the second volume

¹ Salt Water Poems and Ballads. By John Masefield. Macmillan. 163 pp. Ill. \$2.

² Responsibilities, and Other Poems. By William Butler Yeats. Macmillan. 188 pp. \$1.25.

³ Wild Earth. By Padraic Colum. Holt. 71 pp. \$1.25.

by Irene McLeod, the young English girl whose early poems have approached greatness. In "Swords for Life," this nineteen-year-old poet has given us lyrics of even more passion and intensity than those of the first collection, "Songs to Save a Soul." They are beautiful and rare and full of the desire and vigor of youth.

For the eclectic reader there is "Amores,"² by D. H. Lawrence—poems that cannot be mastered at a single reading, nor all their honey sucked by the mind until they have become old friends. Often they seem the antiphonies of silence after the power of words has been spent. Color and exotic richness characterize the love poems.

In "A Harvest of German Verse,"³ an anthology of German short poems, folk-songs, ballads, love poems, and hymns, not only the original form but to a remarkable degree the original spirit has also been retained by the translation.

A volume of poems of Nieves Xenes, the leading poetess of Cuba, is published by a commission of the Cuban *Academia Nacional de artes y letras*. Many of these poems have been previously contributed to Spanish-American literary reviews. Her work falls into five groups, of which the patriotic poems and the love poems may be considered the best. The preface, which is the work of a member of the literary commission, Aurelia Catillo de Gonzales, states that she was essentially a poetess of love and beauty with a great talent for word portraiture. She was born in 1859 and died in retirement in 1915. The volume is published in Spanish and presented by the Twentieth Century Press of Aurelio Miranda, of Havana, Cuba.

Midway in reading the season's new poetry, read an essay by John Drinkwater, which defines

and analyzes the lyric.⁴ He enlightens us with profound grace and delicacy in regard to the perfect lyric, which, by its very flawlessness, seems to descend untouched by any hint of fashioning from a higher sphere to impress "a quickening ecstasy upon the mind of man." He has also pointed out the pitfall that exists for readers and critics in permitting literary judgment to be guided by that which chimes in tune with our own beliefs and experiences or arouses emotions duplicated by those which are enshrined with our personal affections. That we have fallen into this pit explains the number of so-called "great" poets which the columns of criticism in newspapers and various periodicals discover. If the mood of appreciation be on our souls, judgment is temporarily obscured so far as modern poetry is concerned.

For poets and rhymsters and for all who enjoy masterly criticism "Poetry and the Renaissance of Wonder,"⁵ the two famous essays by the late Theodore Watts-Dunton, are presented as rewritten by the author. The text is interspersed with "riders" culled from his criticisms on poetry contributed to the *Athenaeum*, printed in closer text than the material of the essays. The essay on poetry appeared in the ninth and subsequent editions of the "Encyclopædia Britannica." It examines and explains the principles of poetic art as exemplified by the poetry of all great literatures. "The Renaissance of Wonder" is the return to the primitive, to the "childlike wonder of the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*," as the author has said. In the light of all the criticism that came from his pen from the beginning of his *Athenaeum* articles in 1876, Swinburne's praise stands as sure judgment. "The first critic of our time—perhaps the largest-minded and surest-sighted of any age." The introduction is by Thomas Hake.

PLAYS AND BOOKS ABOUT THE THEATER

THE reading of good plays has been greatly stimulated of late by the interest taken in pageantry and in folk theaters and the various communal theatrical ventures that have been instituted in various parts of the country. This month there are offered by publishers most interesting plays, both for reading and for actual production, and a wide range of books on the theater and about the various arts of the theater.

"Training for the Stage,"⁶ by Arthur Hornblow, editor of the *Theatre Magazine*, gives authoritative knowledge of the stage, its rewards, pitfalls, and impresses a larger view of its activities in a most cogent manner. The chapter on "The

Stage as a Career for Women" answers the query sent to so many managers by untrained girls and women, "Do you advise me to go on the stage?" It is spirited, delightful, and instructive—not a dull page in the book. The preface is by David Belasco. An appendix contains a model theatrical contract as proposed by the Actors' Equity Association.

Another practical book for beginners is Emerson Taylor's "Practical Stage Directing for Amateurs,"⁷ a most suggestive manual that urges the stage aspirant for honors in the field of acting or stage-managing to awaken his own powers of invention and impersonation.

One of the most noteworthy of this class of books is Brander Matthews' volume of essays, "A Book About the Theater,"⁸ devoted to the subordinate subdivisions of the art of the stage. The essays are highly entertaining and eminently practical in their advices. The fact that they are able to entertain

¹ *Swords for Life*. By Irene McLeod. B. W. Huebsch. 121 pp. \$1.

² *Amores*. By D. H. Lawrence. B. W. Huebsch. 113 pp. \$1.25.

³ *A Harvest of German Verse*. Translated by Margaret Münsterberg. D. Appleton & Co. 125 pp. \$1.25.

⁴ *The Lyric*. By John Drinkwater. Doran. 63 pp. 40 cents.

⁵ *Poetry and The Renaissance of Wonder*. By Theodore Watts-Dunton. Dutton. 296 pp. \$1.75.

⁶ *Training for the Stage*. By Arthur Hornblow. Lippincott. 192 pp. \$1.25.

⁷ *Practical Stage Directing for Amateurs*. By Emerson Taylor. Dutton. 194 pp. \$1.

⁸ *A Book About the Theater*. By Brander Matthews. Scribner's. 334 pp. \$2.50.

as literature does not detract from their suggestiveness or their value. They include discussion of the "show business," of the limitations of the stage, dramatic collaboration, the dramatization of novels, of women dramatists, the evolution of scene-painting, the principles of pantomime, the decline and fall of negro minstrelsy, modern magic, and the poetry of the dance. Numerous illustrations aid in instructing the reader in stage trickery and the manipulation of scenery, and show forgotten curiosities of old-time stagecraft.

"The Truth About the Theater"¹ presents a picture of the seamy side of the theatrical profession. To one who knows, the book is written with restraint. It hesitates to make the truth as black as it really seems to those who have brushed aside the veneer that gilds the surface of theatrical matters. Yet it does not discourage the persons who have sufficient intelligence and fortitude to persist; it simply serves warning on the ignorant that for actor, actress, and manager the life is exacting, and, with the exception of few instances, without adequate rewards. The book purports to be the work of one of the best-known theatrical men in New York, but for reasons of prudence he has omitted his name from the title-page.

In "The Photoplay,"² Professor Hugo Münsterberg approaches the "young art" of the moving picture in a serious vein in order that we shall realize its true meaning in the world of art and its possibilities in the future. He asks for better plays, for a recognition of esthetic values. The feeling conveyed by the new art he characterizes thus: "The massive outer world has lost its weight, it has been freed from space, time, and causality, and it has been clothed in the forms of our own consciousness. The mind has triumphed over matter and the pictures roll on with the ease of musical tones. It is a superb enjoyment which no other art can furnish us."

For the play-reader who wishes to get a vista of playwriting from the earliest period to our own generation there is a comprehensive volume of "Representative English Plays,"³ that range from the Middle Ages to the end of the nineteenth century. They are edited, with introductions and notes, by John S. P. Tatlock, of Stanford University, and Robert G. Martin, of the Northwestern University. This is a fine collection and should please the general public as well as literary students. The text of certain Elizabethan dramas has been given by Professor William Allan Neilson, who possesses the best text available for several of these dramas.

"The Road Together,"⁴ an American drama in four acts by George Middleton, gives a searching study of married life. At the end of the fourth act appreciation of the playwright's sense and vision regarding marriage leads one to feel this is one of the best plays written by any American playwright. The "eternal triangle" is smashed to bits by the alchemy of that at once



A FRENCH COURT BALLET IN THE EARLY SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

(Frontispiece of "A Book About the Theater")

heavenly and commonplace thing called habit. Passion is an incident, an emotional crisis, a part of marriage, but the big part is the communal interest, the used-to-each-other happiness, the flowering of our spiritual selves through the lowly grooves of habit up to the higher levels of life and achievement. And to make the point more clear Middleton has taken a childless couple, ten years married, to prove his theory that marriage is a "state of mind" based on habit, and that this is most happily true in most cases is the bulwark of the stability of monogamy.

In "The Locust Flower" and "The Celibate,"⁵ two plays for reading, by Pauline B. Quinton, we have the theme of love cast in poetic prose with exceptional mastery of word-color and prose rhythms. A native vigor holds the plays from the precipice of undue sentimentality. If these are first plays, the author gives promise of exceptional ability.

In a strong, realistic play, "The Woman Who Wouldn't,"⁶ Rose Pastor Stokes paints the life of a typical family in a typical mining town. Her heroine refuses to win protection for her shame by marriage to a man who no longer loves her. The play is sincere and straightforward, and Mrs. Stokes has shown skill in her picture of the terrible struggle for existence among the poverty-stricken miners.

For the "Borzoï" series of plays, published by Alfred Knopf, Thomas Seltzer has translated

¹ The Truth About the Theater. Stewart & Kidd Co. 111 pp. \$1.

² The Photoplay. By Hugo Münsterberg. Appleton's. 233 pp. \$1.

³ Representative English Plays. By John Tatlock and Robert G. Martin. Century. 838 pp. \$2.50.

⁴ The Road Together. By George Middleton. Holt. 204 pp. \$1.

⁵ The Locust Flower and The Celibate. By Pauline B. Quinton. Boston: Sherman, French. 103 pp. \$1.

⁶ The Woman Who Wouldn't. By Rose Pastor Stokes. Putnam. 183 pp. \$1.25.

"War,"¹ a play by Michael Artzibashef, the brilliant young Russian novelist and playwright. This impressionable Russian has been tempered by the war; he is no longer just what he was when he flung "Sapine" at the literary world like a bombshell. This play is notable for its restraint. He has learned the power of the tragedy that hovers over but does not actually appear in the play. The drama shows us in the first act two weaklings despised by the healthy members of the community, the one a consumptive, the other of moral unworthiness. At the end of the war these two have gained supremacy, and have the right to produce the next generation, simply because the "fit" have been killed. War has destroyed them, and the unfit must continue the life of the nation. This Artzibashef sees as the great tragedy of war.

"Moloch,"² the startling war-play by Beulah Marie Dix, as presented by Holbrook Blinn's company in leading cities of the country, is now printed in the "Borzoi" series. It depicts the horrors of war.

"Four Short Plays,"³ by Charles F. Nirdlinger, include three that are of modern texture: "The Real People" shows just what vaudeville audiences want when they go to see the drama. "Aren't They Wonders?" is a duel of wits between two women—one a society trifler, the other a worker—over the affections of "mere man." "Look After Louise" touches on the truth that "Judy O'Grady and the Colonel's Lady" are very much alike when it comes to matters of independence of the sterner sex. The fourth play lets us see the swaggering Catherine, Empress of Russia, trying in a moment of caprice to marry an English schoolmaster. The plays are amusing, vigorous, and full of wit and satire.

The "St. Nicholas Plays and Operettas" (Century Co.) is the second book of selected plays and operettas that have appeared in *St. Nicholas* during the last fifteen years. It is an indispensable book for the home, just what young people will want who wish to turn the natural play instinct, the desire to "make believe," into sources of mental and spiritual growth.

"Dances, Drills, and Story Plays," by Nina B. Lambkin (T. S. Dennison Co.), gives means of

excellent mental and physical training for boys and girls, prepared by the hand of a prominent educator who understands the cultural value of plays and drills. Every mother with young children and all teachers of primary or intermediate grades will want this helpful book.

"Sixty Years of the Theater"⁴ is a book of criticism and reminiscence by John Ranken Towse, dramatic critic for forty-three years on the *New York Evening Post*. From his first remembrances of English pantomime over a long period of brilliant theatrical achievement his critiques progress to the productions of recent years and the actors of a recent yesterday. Mr. Towse has been one of the shaping influences of the American stage. He has the rare gift of discerning the psychology of players, therefore his criticism is formative. His analysis of the genius of Henry Irving and of Mansfield betrays his rare insight, and his pen portraits of old favorites, such as Barrett, Mary Anderson, Clara Morris, Joe Jefferson, have great charm. The book is illustrated with nearly one hundred engravings of portraits of stage celebrities.

Before the *Lusitania* rode to her doom the general public knew very little about the man Charles Frohman, but a great deal about his work. His personality had become almost a myth. On May 7, 1915, he gave voice to an utterance that was a key to his nature and to his success. Facing death he said: "Why fear death? It is the most beautiful adventure of life?" His biography, the work of his brother, Daniel Frohman, and of Isaac Marcossion, spreads before the public the actual life of this great organizing genius of the English-speaking stage.⁵ Sir James Barrie has written an appreciation by way of preface, and the publishers have illustrated the book with numerous portraits of actors and actresses who played in his companies. There is also a chronological list of Frohman productions. To those who did not know Frohman it may seem surprising that Barrie writes that he was the man with whom Charles Lamb would have liked best to spend an evening. And this because of his humor, charity, and gentle chivalry and his most romantic mind. "What an essay Elia might have made of him—" is Barrie's observation.

NOVELS AND SHORT STORIES

FOR those who know the days of pioneer religious revivals in the backwoods of the Middle Western States, and for those who can feel the curious pulse of those great whirlwinds of religious zeal, "The Leatherwood God,"⁶ by William Dean Howells, will offer the ripeness and mellowness of a finely wrought tale. It

is the story—founded on similar facts—of a religious impostor in the backwoods of Ohio who first declares himself to be a prophet, then Christ, and finally God. The splendid, sturdy settlers, Squire Braille, David Gillespie, Jane, the passionate, red-haired daughter who falls in love with the impostor, and Nancy, his deserted wife, are the real men and women of the past clothed by Mr. Howells with the vivid texture of his fine literary art and sympathetic understanding.

"The Mysterious Stranger," a posthumous book by Mark Twain, has little likeness to his usual work, nor does its grim message seem to spring from the cheerful philosophy of the humorist. It is the story of the jester whose magic could cure every sorrow save his own. The setting is that of a medieval village in Austria in the

¹ War. By Michael Artzibashef. Alfred A. Knopf. 73 pp. \$1.

² Moloch. By Beulah Marie Dix. Alfred A. Knopf. 94 pp. \$1.

³ Four Short Plays. By Charles F. Nirdlinger. Mitchell Kennerley. 119 pp. \$1.25.

⁴ Sixty Years of the Theater. By John Ranken Towse. Funk & Wagnalls. \$2.50.

⁵ Charles Frohman, Manager and Man. By Isaac Marcossion and Daniel Frohman. Harper's. 440 pp. Ill. \$2.

⁶ The Leatherwood God. By William Dean Howells. Century. 236 pp. \$1.35.

year 1590. A stranger meets with three youths wandering in the woods. He performs curious tricks for their pleasure, tells them he is an angel, but announces his name as "Satan." On the surface the book carries terrifying disillusion, but it seems that Mark Twain, courageous to the end, meant to test faith with this book, to tell us that Satan is the doubt in our minds, the creeping persuasion that everything, the universe, the human race, heaven, hell, the eternities, are but "puerile insanities" of dreams and nothing more. One would wrong the memory of Mark Twain to interpret this book otherwise. If we are naught but dreams we may laugh at ourselves, and herein is the cure. The Angel says that humanity has "one really effective weapon—laughter. . . . Against the assault of laughter nothing can stand." The book is beautifully illustrated in color by N. C. Wyeth.¹

As an example of fine literary craftsmanship in short stories there is no better collection than that of Edith Wharton, published under the title "Xingu."² It includes, beyond the title story, which is a satire on the incipient seekers after culture in small towns, "Coming Home," a war story; "Autres Temps," perhaps the best study of changing social conditions ever written; "Kerfol," "The Triumph of Night," "The Choice," "Bunner Sisters," and a story that is at once a lesson to weaklings and an artistic triumph, "The Long Run."

"Penrod and Sam,"³ by Booth Tarkington, a new collection of the exciting adventures of Penrod Schofield at the magic age of twelve, is just as delightful as the first "Penrod" book and as the incomparable "Seventeen." Amusing, pathetic, and profound in power of psychology by turns, it gives the most amazing whiffs of real boyhood and the best-written stories of juvenile prankishness that have ever been written.

Striking short stories by Rabindranath Tagore, the Indian writer now visiting the United States, are now published in English translation under the title, "The Hungry Stones and Other Stories."⁴ They are remarkable for the poesy of their style, and the varied elements of their composition, fact, fancy, realism, romance, religion, and philosophical truths, are blended in a fascinating interplay around the central themes. One story has been translated by Tagore; the others are the work of different translators. A powerful tale, "Living or Dead," impresses the Eastern conception of the power of thought upon the reader's mind. Kadambini, who has been carried to the burning *ghat* in a trance, recovers and escapes. She thinks herself a ghost, and because of her fixed state of mind she remains one, in spite of the material facts of existence. All these tales are so near to the mystery of Being that, once read, they become instantly incorporated into the memory.

For pure, unadulterated charm "Bonnie May,"⁵ the story of a child of the theater, by Louis

Dodge, must take first place. A little waif, young in years, old in strange, mature wisdom, conscious only that "the world's a stage," is thrust into the midst of a conservative family to whom her very vocabulary is Greek. Bonnie May conquers because she is real and lovable, and the pretty story ends in a kind of fairy-tale glow of happiness, wherein everybody falls under the spell of Mr. Dodge's youthful heroine. This is his first novel, but his work is well known in the newspaper world. He has written descriptive articles from Mexico and the Rio Grande country, worked fifteen years as literary editor of St. Louis papers, and served three years in the United States Army in the Philippine Islands.

Mildred Aldrich, author of "The Hilltop on the Marne," has adopted a daring plan for her book of short stories, "Told in a French Garden."⁶ It is the ancient one of that book of tales—"It was in the days of Our Lord, 1348, that there happened in Florence, the finest city in Italy—" And as those ancient story-tellers took refuge in the Villa Palmieri during the days of the plague, so these modern ones take refuge in the garden of a French farmhouse. The Youngster, the Trained Nurse, the Critic, a doctor, sculptor, a divorcée, a lawyer, a journalist, and a violinist spin their respective yarns before a French battery is set up in the garden and they are forced to take the *route nationale* to Paris. The plan of the book is captivating, the stories delightful.

A new W. H. Hudson book contains marvelous and thrilling tales of the South American pampas.⁷ They are less idealistic, but more exciting and adventurous, than "Green Mansions," but absolutely unique in the field of short stories. Stevenson never wrote anything more mysterious or fascinating than these tales. "Tecla and the Little Men," a legend of La Plata, is told in verse. An appendix to the first story, "El Ombu," gives facts about the English invasion and the rough game of "El Pato" (The Duck).

"The Willow Weaver"⁸ and seven other tales, by Michael Wood, republished from the *Theosophical Review*, are for those readers to whom the invisible world is dearer than the world of solid reality. As literature they are delicate prose poems; as stories they pierce the veils of earthly illusion and reveal eternal and abiding beauty of pure spirit. They are, as the editor writes, "diamonds from a mystic mine."

"Windy McPherson's Son,"⁹ a novel by Sherwood Anderson that has attracted the attention of critics who are seeking the "great American novel," is the most typically American story among the autumn publications. It is nothing more than the biography of Windy McPherson's son Sam, who begins life as a newsboy in Caxton, Iowa, and goes to Chicago, where he becomes a powerful multimillionaire. The story of the boy who searches and gropes after what is best in life and who finally accepts business success, only to have it turn to ashes in his grasp, is powerfully wrought, with touches of real genius.

¹ The Mysterious Stranger. By Mark Twain. Harper's. 151 pp. III.

² Xingu. By Edith Wharton. Scribner's. 436 pp. \$1.40.

³ Penrod and Sam. By Booth Tarkington. Doubleday. Page. 356 pp. \$1.35.

⁴ The Hungry Stones and Other Stories. By Rabindranath Tagore. Macmillan. 271 pp. \$1.35.

⁵ Bonnie May. By Louis Dodge. Scribner's. \$1.35.

⁶ Told in a French Garden. By Mildred Aldrich. Small, Maynard & Co. 266 pp. \$1.25.

⁷ Tales of the Pampas. By W. H. Hudson. Alfred Knopf. 253 pp. \$1.25.

⁸ The Willow Weaver. By Michael Wood. Dutton. 144 pp. \$1.

⁹ Windy McPherson's Son. By Sherwood Anderson. John Lane. 347 pp. \$1.40.

TRAVELERS' JOTTINGS

Our Hispanic Southwest. By Ernest Peixotto. Charles Scribner's Sons. 245 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

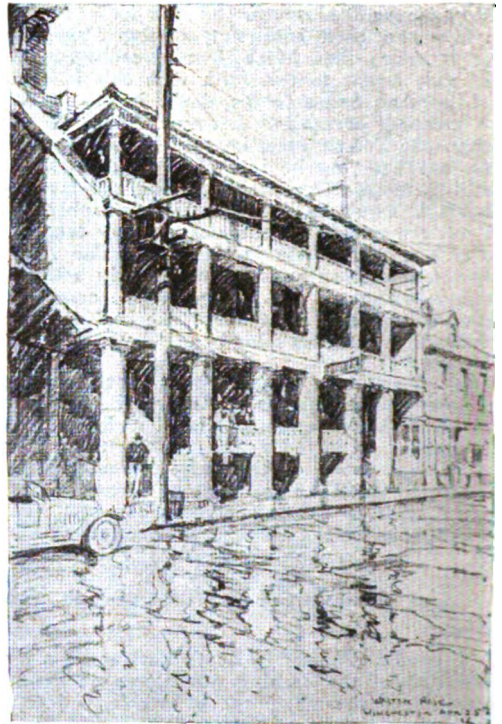
Descriptive text on the old missions and other Spanish remains in Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona, with illustrations by the author. In the flood of printed material relating to the Franciscan missions of California, scant attention has been given to the older monuments of Spanish mission architecture that still remain near our Mexican border. Some of these, like the famous church of San Xavier del Bac in Arizona, are well deserving of our study from the architectural as well as the historical standpoint. Mr. Peixotto has followed the pioneer Spanish priests and explorers in their journeys over the southwestern deserts from Mexico to Kansas. An introductory chapter describes the historic quarters of New Orleans, and still another chapter is devoted to San Antonio, the ancient capital of Texas.

We Discover the Old Dominion. By Louise Closser Hale. Dodd, Mead. 374 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

It seems that Virginia's roads are not bad enough to insure immunity from invasion by motor. Mrs. Hale's entertaining descriptions of many places of historic interest, accompanied by Mr. Hale's attractive drawings, will doubtless be the means of introducing to the Old Dominion many parties of motorists, who will find an easy approach to the Shenandoah Valley by crossing Maryland from Gettysburg.

Winter Journeys in the South. By John Martin Hammond. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. 262 pp. Ill. \$3.50.

In this volume nearly all the important southern winter resorts from New Orleans and Palm Beach to the Virginia springs are described in text and pictures. Much useful information is given for the benefit of the winter tourist.



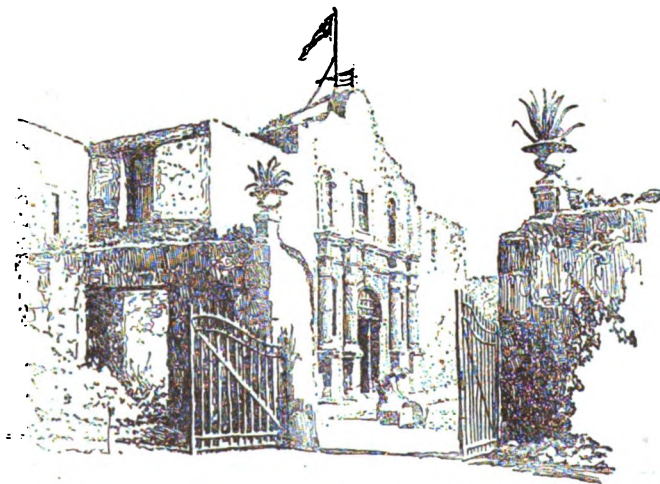
OLD HOTEL AT WINCHESTER, VA.—A RELIC OF ANTE-BELLUM DAYS
(Drawing by Walter Hale, in "We Discover the Old Dominion")

Argentina and Uruguay. By Gordon Ross. Macmillan. 308 pp. Ill. \$3.50.

The author of this work is an Englishman, who was formerly financial editor of the *Buenos Aires Standard*, and served as official translator to the Congress of American Republics at Buenos Aires in 1910. He outlines the present and probable future effects of the European War on Argentina and Uruguay, and gives the most recent statistics of finance and commerce in these countries. There are also informational chapters on agriculture, live stock, and forestry.

From Pillar to Post. By John Kendrick Bangs. Century. 350 pp., ill. \$1.60.

When a man has traveled about the country for ten years on lecture tours, meeting all kinds of people in all sections of the land, he has accumulated a rich and various fund of experience. When, furthermore, that man is John Kendrick Bangs, with his keenness for seeing the humorous side of things and the gift of recording his experiences with delightful charm and wit, you



THE ALAMO, SAN ANTONIO, TEXAS
(Drawing by Ernest Peixotto, in "Our Hispanic Southwest")

get a volume full of rare entertainment like "From Pillar to Post."



COVER DESIGN, "FROM PILLAR TO POST"

The New York of the Novelists. By Arthur Bartlett-Maurice. Dodd, Mead. 366 pp. Ill. \$2.

The homes and haunts of New York novelists and the houses and streets frequented by their chief characters are here described in detail, and the account is brought well up to date. Scenes made familiar by Ernest Poole's "Harbor," for instance, are pictured here, along with the trail of "Potash and Perlmutter."

Content with Flies. By Mary and Jane Findlater. Dutton. 111 pp. \$1.

This is the dubious title of the delightful story of the life of the well-known authors, Mary and Jane Findlater, in a country cottage in Scotland, where, without servants, they lived the simple life, according to the changed standards of living in Great Britain in these later days of the war. It is not idly written, for, as the author writes: "Who wants to be making novels when the world is at war?" It has the definite purpose of the simplification of interior and exterior life, of teaching us how much happier many of us can be without the burdens of our luxuries.

BIOGRAPHY

James Whitcomb Riley: Reminiscences. By Clara Laughlin. Revell. 114 pp. 75 cents.

Clara Laughlin's reminiscences of James Whitcomb Riley bring us an intimate picture of the many-sided poet. She writes in particular of his serious turn of mind, of his admiration for Stevenson, his kindness to young writers, and of the great richness of his personality. Her friendship with Riley began over a score of years ago at Winona Lake, Indiana, at a session of the Western Writers' Association, of which the poet was first vice-president, and continued until his death. "Because he was playful and not didactic, he taught me many things," she writes. The book contains letters in facsimile and hitherto unpublished verse. A tender and beautiful tribute to the poet who is not dead because his "song lives in so many hearts."

"The Boys' Life of Mark Twain." By Albert Bigelow Paine. Harper's. Ill. 354 pp. \$1.25.

"The Boys' Life of Mark Twain," by Albert Bigelow Paine, brings out the principal facts of the life of the great humorist in combination with many anecdotes and bits of his writings and intimate diary jottings. More than anything else, it shows boys that the great success of Samuel Clemens was due as much to persistency and hard work as to natural genius. Having slight educational advantages, he climbed steadily through difficult conditions to win the reward of his fame. The author makes us feel by his fine simplicity and emotional sweep that Mark Twain is with us still, and that we shall go on loving him and laughing with him as long as America is America. The book is generously illustrated. Mr. Paine is the author of the complete life of

the humorist, entitled "Mark Twain: His Biography."

Cicero: A Sketch of His Life and Works. By Hannis Taylor. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 615 pp., ill. \$3.50.

This new survey of the great Roman statesman's career, written from the viewpoint of an American student of constitutions, ancient and modern, presents Cicero as the ideal defender of the Roman constitution, and the "embodiment of the departing spirit of Roman republicanism." Some of the chapter headings may serve to indicate the way in which Dr. Taylor has grouped and marshalled his materials: "Stoic Philosophy and Roman Law," "Cicero's Greek Culture," "The Roman Bar in Cicero's Time," "The Roman Constitution," "Cicero as Leader of the Roman Bar," "Cicero as a Statesman," "Cicero and Pompey," "Cicero and Caesar," "The Duel to the Death of Antony."

Booker T. Washington, Builder of a Civilization. By Emmett J. Scott and Lyman Beecher Stowe. Doubleday, Page & Co. 331 pp., ill. \$2.

Not a biography in the usual sense of the word, but rather a series of vivid pictures of distinctive phases in the life of the great negro leader and educator in his relations with two races. The writers, Mr. Emmett J. Scott, for eighteen years Dr. Washington's secretary, and Mr. Lyman Beecher Stowe, grandson of the author of "Uncle Tom's Cabin," were personally selected by Dr. Washington himself for this particular task. The preface of the volume is furnished by ex-President Roosevelt and a foreword by Principal Robert R. Molton, Dr. Washington's successor at Tuskegee Institute. The picturesque

story of Dr. Washington's childhood and education was told by himself in "Up from Slavery," some years before his death. That part of his life is therefore not touched upon in the present volume. The authors intimate that a more exhaustive biography will appear later.

Andrew Johnson, Military Governor of Tennessee. By Clifton R. Hall, Ph.D., Princeton University Press. 234 pp., ill. \$1.50.

The most important part of Andrew Johnson's career, prior to his elevation to the presidency after the assassination of Lincoln, was the period during the Civil War in which he served as military governor of Tennessee. Dr. Hall has made a careful, impartial examination of Johnson's record in that office, and this publication of what he has learned from the official files and other documentary sources is useful for the light it throws on the part that his experience in Tennessee had in shaping his attitude as President toward the problems of reconstruction in the South. It is probably true that Johnson's statesmanship has never been fairly adjudged, either north or south of Mason and Dixon's Line. As Dr. Hall points out, Johnson's weaknesses were those of temperament and training. "His claims to honor are based upon loyalty, self-sacrifice, and a steadfast devotion to the cause he believed to be right, which, considering all that he had at stake, can only be described as heroic."

The Boys' Life of Lord Kitchener. By Harold F. B. Wheeler, F. R. S. Thomas Y. Crowell Co. 288 pp., ill. \$1.50.

An excellent, well-written sketch of England's great field-marshal, which "boys" of all ages will find readable and entertaining.

A Dreamer of Dreams. By Oliver Huckel. Thomas Y. Crowell Co. 249 pp., ill. \$1.25.

"An authentic narrative, freely arranged from the supposed journal of the fair Guli Springett, as found in an old oaken chest at Worminghurst, England." Guli Springett was William Penn's

first wife, and this book relates his love story, his voyage to America, and his later career.

Recollections of a Happy Life. By Elizabeth Christophers Hobson. Putnam's. 258 pp. \$1.25.

These memoirs were first printed for private circulation only, but after the writer's death the consent of her family to publication was obtained. The opening chapters of the book deal with a voyage in a clipper ship around the Horn to San Francisco, and a wedding trip to the Isthmus of Panama in the fifties. There are many other chapters of travel and interesting personal experiences.

La Salle. By Louise Seymour Hasbrouck. Macmillan. 212 pp., ill. 50 cents.

A well-written sketch of La Salle's career, filled in with details of the scenery and environment through which he moved.

With Sam Houston in Texas. By Edwin L. Sabin. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 320 pp., ill. \$1.25.

A boy's story of the Texas revolt from Mexico in 1835-36, and the establishment of the republic under Houston. Under the guise of a boy volunteer's story of the fights for the new republic, a good deal of Texan documentary history is introduced in the volume.

Charles, the Twelfth, King of Sweden. By John A. Gade, from the manuscript of Carl Gustafson Klingspor. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 371 pp. \$3.

In this volume Mr. Gade has translated from the Swedish the narrative of one of the soldiers of Charles XII, who had been from youth a member of the king's household. This translation makes it possible for English readers to get for the first time an adequate history of the king's adventurous career.

HISTORY AND POLITICS

A Political and Social History of Modern Europe. By Carlton J. H. Hayes. Macmillan. 1344 pp., with maps. \$4.50. 2 v.

By way of preparation for a study of the causes and origin of the great war now raging in Europe, there is probably no single work in the English language so useful as this new "Political and Social History of Modern Europe," by Professor Hayes. The author's purpose to combine social with political history is consistently maintained throughout the work. That it is distinctly a "modern" history is indicated by the fact that 25 per cent more space is given to the period 1815-1915 (treated in the second volume) than to the three centuries leading up to the fall of Napoleon, but the author finds in the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries the roots of all the important developments of the nineteenth, and his aim is to familiarize the student with Europe's social, economic, and political conditions

in the era of world discovery and commercial revolution in order that the growth of European nationalism in modern times may be better understood.

Our Nation in the Building. By Helen Nicolay. Century. 521 pp., ill. \$2.50.

To rid herself once for all of the methods of formal history writing as practised by American text-book writers from time immemorial seems to have been the purpose of Miss Nicolay, who believes that most of us take our history too seriously. Her book, therefore, does not pretend to be strictly chronological, and "cares less for dates than for happenings, less for specific happenings than for movements and currents of feeling. When forced to choose between picturesquely typical incidents and a conscientious narrative of dry fact, it gravitates shamelessly towards the picturesque." She has chosen the period between

the Revolution and the Civil War—a stretch of years that has seldom been illuminated by any of our writers, except in the case of a few novelists. People who never cared much for American history “as she is taught,” will find in Miss Nicolay’s pages a fresh and interesting treatment of the subject from a new point of view.

A History of Indiana from Its Exploration to 1850. By Logan Esarey. W. K. Stewart Company, Indianapolis.

The admission of Indiana as a State occurred in December, 1816, just a hundred years ago. The event has been celebrated by much centennial pageantry throughout Indiana, and also by valuable historical publications. One of the most notable and permanent results of the new study of Indiana’s history is a volume by Dr. Logan Esarey, of the historical faculty of the Indiana State University. Professor Esarey has given us not only a delightfully readable narrative in one substantial volume, but he has been at great pains to verify his information from primary sources. He found even the official documents to be inaccurate and haphazard. His work is both a timely service rendered to his State, and a most excellent general contribution to the literature of our national history.

The New Purchase, or, Seven and a Half Years in the Far West. By Robert Carlton (Baynard Rush Hall). Princeton University Press. 522 pp., ill. \$2.

This is a new edition of what may fairly be termed a classic in the history of Indiana, also published in honor of the State’s centennial celebration. The author, Dr. Hall, was the first professor of Indiana Seminary, which developed later into the State University. When Hall went to Indiana the State was a little over four years old, and had a population of about 150,000. He became a pioneer in the educational life of Indiana, being elected to his professorship in 1823. His account of social conditions in the State at that period has been pronounced “one of the best books ever written concerning life in the West.” As edited by Professor James A. Woodburn, of Indiana University, “The New Purchase” has a distinct value to the historical student.

The Story of Montana. By Kate Hammond Fogarty. The A. S. Barnes Co. 302 pp., ill. \$1.

An attractive, illustrated account of the exploration and settlement of the country now included in the State of Montana. The picturesque features of pioneer life, notably the fur trade, the relations of the whites with the Indians, and the search for gold, are vividly described. Intended as a text-book for the public schools, “The Story of Montana” also makes its appeal to the adult reader.

A History of the Presidency from 1788 to 1916. By Edward Stanwood. Houghton, Mifflin. 982 pp. \$4.50. 2 v.

For many years Stanwood’s “History of the Presidency” has been regarded as the standard authority in its field. The present edition contains a chapter of nearly one hundred pages

devoted to the Republican-Progressive split in 1912, and the resulting election of Woodrow Wilson.

Caribbean Interests of the United States. By Chester Lloyd Jones. Appleton. 379 pp. \$2.50.

That our interests in the Caribbean are really much greater than is generally assumed may be gathered from a single statement in the preface of this book, that, counting its colonies and protectorates together, the United States has under its supervision in the Caribbean a population greater than that of the thirteen colonies at the time of the Declaration of Independence. It is further stated that during the last five years our government has been in active negotiation for the creation of protectorates over other territories there, with a population almost as great. Not only is this country, with a few exceptions, the best customer of these Caribbean communities, but in the greater number of them we hold the most important position in their import trade. These facts make the publication of a popular book on American political and trade interests in the Caribbean very timely. There is an interesting chapter on harbors and naval bases.

Contemporary Politics in the Far East. By Stanley K. Hornbeck. Appleton. 466 pp. \$3.

This book gives a brief account of Chinese politics, of Japanese politics, and of some of the outstanding features of the international situation in the Far East. The author lived, traveled, and studied in that part of the world for five years. His book is largely the outcome of his own personal experience in obtaining a working knowledge of Far Eastern politics, and in attempting to answer many questions that are asked in this country with regard to these current problems.

Social Life in England, 1750-1850. By F. J. Foakes Jackson. Macmillan. 338 pp. \$1.50.

A course of Lowell Lectures, delivered in Boston in March, 1916. The references to seventeenth-century manners and customs in rural England are interesting to Americans as indicating many similarities to contemporary customs in the colonies of New England.

The Last Voyage of the “Karluk,” as related by Robert A. Bartlett. Ralph T. Hale. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. 329 pp., ill. \$2.50.

The *Karluk* was the flagship of Stefansson’s Canadian Arctic expedition. The ship was under the command of Captain Robert A. Bartlett, who, as master of Peary’s *Roosevelt*, was distinguished for navigating a ship farther north than any ship had ever been navigated before. The *Karluk* was frozen in the ice north of Alaska, and after months of zigzagging she sank, hundreds of miles from land. Bartlett led his company of scientists and sailors over the ice two hundred miles to the Siberian coast, and for five hundred miles eastward to get a ship for Alaska. The journey took him over two months and resulted in the rescue of the *Karluk*’s survivors. This is the story that is told here for the first time in detail.

BOOKS RELATING TO THE WAR



"WE FELL TO SINGING THE RUSSIAN ANTHEM"
(From "A Diary of the Great Warr")

A Diary of the Great Warr. By Samuel Pepys, Junr., Esq., M. A. John Lane. 316 pp. \$1.50.

The original Samuel Pepys, of the seventeenth century, who immortalized himself as a diarist, has had in these latter years a counterpart whose journal has appeared in the pages of *London Truth*. The diary kept by this Samuel Pepys, Jr., since July, 1914, has now been republished from the pages of *Truth*, with a series of excellent drawings by M. Watson Williams. It makes a good running account, not of the war itself, but of the reactions upon the British public of successive developments and incidents of the contest. Even in his descriptions of thoroughly modern scenes and events the author has ingeniously transferred to his pages the flavor of the original diarist, who may be described as a pioneer journalist.

Ambulance No. 10. By Leslie Buswell. Houghton, Mifflin. 155 pp., ill. \$1.

Personal letters describing the work of the American Ambulance Field Service in France. The fact that the letters were not at first intended for publication makes them the more interesting as pen pictures of daily life at the front.

Gallipoli. By John Masefield. Macmillan. 245 pp. Ill. \$1.25.

The English poet, who himself had a part in the Gallipoli campaign, attempts in this book to answer many questions that were put to him during a recent visit to America. He considers the campaign "not as a tragedy, nor as a mistake, but as a great human effort, which came, more than once, very near to triumph, achieved the impossible many times, and failed, in the end, as many great deeds of arms have failed, from something which had nothing to do with arms nor with the men who bore them. To myself, this failure is the second grand event of the war; the first was Belgium's answer to the German ultimatum."

A Volunteer Poilu. By Henry Sheahan. Houghton, Mifflin. 218 pp., ill. \$1.25.

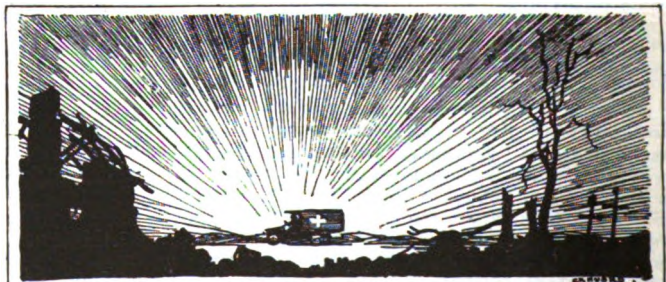
The writer of this little book is the son of an American father and a French mother, and has passed much of his life in France. He early enlisted in the Field Service of the American Ambulance and spent nearly a year at the extreme front. In these pages he gives intimate descriptions of trench life.

A Visit to Three Fronts. By Arthur Conan Doyle. Doran. 93 pp. 50 cents.

During the past summer the creator of "Sherlock Holmes" had the unusual privilege of visiting the British, French, and Italian fronts, at a critical stage in the war. His vivid account of his experiences is contained in this little book.

Military and Naval America. By Capt. Harrison S. Kerrick, U. S. A. Doubleday, Page. 404 pp., ill. \$2.

This book is as comprehensive and inclusive as its title indicates. It is a compendium of authentic information concerning the American army and navy and all the various organizations and institutions connected in any way with our military and naval activities. A large number of photographic illustrations, maps, diagrams, and tables enrich and elucidate the text.



AMBULANCE NO. 10

Personal Letters from the Front



By Leslie Buswell



OTHER PUBLICATIONS OF THE SEASON

The Arabian Nights' Entertainment. Illustrations by Louis Rhead. Harper's. \$1.50.

A new holiday edition of "The Arabian Nights' Entertainment," supplements the old magical tales with over one hundred illustrations and decorations by Louis Rhead, the noted illustrator of fairy stories and books of wonder and adventure. They successfully interpret the spirit of fantasy in which these tales are conceived, and will greatly add to a child's comprehension of the Oriental atmosphere of the stories. They are gracefully executed in pen and ink.

Talks on Talking. By Grenville Kleiser. Funk & Wagnalls. 156 pp. 75 cents.

"Talking" sounds humdrum and common as a subject, but as an art it is neglected and rare. While it may not be given to everyone to become a brilliant conversationalist, much improvement may be gained from the excellent hints in Mr. Kleiser's book, which also contains good advice about speaking in public.

Learning to Fly: A Practical Manual for Beginners. By Claude Grahame-White and Harry Harper. Macmillan. 110 pp., ill. 75 cents.

With the newly planned increase in our government aerial services, as well as the possibilities of flying as a business and a sport, more and more of our young men will become attracted to this new profession. In this volume by Grahame-White, the famous English aviator, and his collaborator, there is much about learning to fly that the novice will find interesting reading.

Aerial Russia. By Lieut.-Col. B. Roustambek. John Lane. 154 pp., ill. \$1.

This little volume tells the story of the beginnings and progress of aviation in Russia, about which little has thus far been published in English-speaking countries. Considerable attention is given to the giant aeroplane of the Sikorsky type, in the development of which the Russians have specialized, with interesting accounts of Russian aerial activity during the war.

The Ambitious Woman in Business. By Eleanor Gilbert. Funk & Wagnalls. 393 pp. \$1.50.

In "The Ambitious Woman in Business," Eleanor Gilbert has given us a highly readable and rather helpful analysis of the conditions, habits and tendencies which determine the actual value of a woman's service in the business field. The author writes not only from the point of view of the woman employee, but also from that of the woman's employer. She sifts the public and private discussions of investigators, newspaper discussions, and personal expressions direct from women who work and from employers of women, and summarizes their opinions. The chapters cover business opportunities, remuneration, the marketing of ability, family *versus* career, and the business woman's finances. The author argues for definite vocational education, for specific training for special work, for adequate



ONE OF LOUIS RHEAD'S POWERFUL DRAWINGS IN THE NEW "ARABIAN NIGHTS"

pay, friendly treatment and an open door. She describes habits that help and hinder, character and personality, "freak jobs," and attitudes toward work.

What Every Business Woman Should Know. By Lillian Cecilia Kearney. Stokes. 247 pp. \$1.60.

A guide to business usages and requirements, with explanations of business terms and commercial forms.

Industrial Preparedness. By C. E. Knoeppel. The Engineering Magazine Company. 145 pp. \$1.

An earnest plea that the United States take a leaf out of Germany's book and emulate her world-famous organization and scientific management of industries and resources. The author firmly believes such industrial efficiency to be fundamental to a proper state of preparedness.

Organic Agricultural Chemistry. By Joseph Scudder Chamberlain. Macmillan. 319 pp. \$1.60.

An excellent text-book of general agricultural chemistry, or elementary bio-chemistry, for use in colleges. A companion volume, "Inorganic Chemistry—The Chemistry of Soils and Fertilizers," is being prepared by the author's associate, Dr. Ernest Anderson, with the definite aim of giving students of practical agriculture enough scientific instruction in chemistry to enable them to undertake agricultural practise.

FINANCIAL NEWS

I.—BONDS OF RAILROADS THAT HAVE BEEN REORGANIZED

ONE by one the railroads that became bankrupt two and three years ago under a load of fixed charges out of proportion to contingent charges as well as from a steadily declining rate for freight and passenger business, higher taxes, greater cost of labor and materials, and improper management, are coming out from under the jurisdiction of the courts. There were over 40,000 miles affected in the latter part of 1916. Nearly 50 per cent. of this mileage has either been recovered by shareholders or is about to be returned to them under plans of reorganization which contain some very up-to-date financial ideas.

Taking the principal systems that defaulted on their bonds and for which receivers had to be appointed, we find that, with a majority, the proportion of bonds to total capital was from 75 to 85 per cent. This meant that every dollar that could be earned over operation had to be applied to the payment of interest charges. In contrast was the proportion of from 40 to 50 per cent. of those roads which were able to pay large dividends on their stocks and still put aside each year a comfortable margin for lean periods, or which applied the surplus to the betterment of tracks, cars, or buildings. It has been proven that had these bankrupt lines maintained themselves on a proper basis they would have been compelled to default much sooner. One of the first discoveries following receivership is the wretched physical condition of a property. Consequently, the initial effect of a receivership on net earnings is to show a large decrease, while revenues are being applied wholesale to mend and patch up those parts that have run down to the point where efficient or even safe conduct of traffic is impossible.

In six reorganization plans that have been projected this year the total reduction in bonded indebtedness, or fixed interest debt, has been nearly \$300,000,000, with a cutting down of fixed charges by over \$16,000,000. A large amount of bonds has been exchanged for stock or else for bonds of the income or adjustment variety in which the

interest is contingent on its being earned. Non-payment, however, does not constitute a basis for legal action on the part of holders.

The income bond has been the subject of much contention for years. It is not considered good financing. It provides a speculative opportunity for those holders of what were in times past regarded as high-grade bonds to recoup their losses by an appreciation in junior securities. Just now when the speculative chance is the one that the majority looks for, bonds of this type are no doubt attractive. Some of those that have been brought out have already risen in market value between 50 and 60 per cent. When the corporation is making plenty of money it can afford to pay the interest and thereby strengthen its entire credit structure, but when the period arrives when it is necessary to contract in expenditures there is the natural disposition to put funds that formerly went to the bondholders back into the property as an equity for shareholders. No corporation that has in its financial exhibit an income or adjustment bond but has at some time to dispute with holders of these bonds its methods of accounting. There were years of war between holders of the old Central of Georgia incomes and the company. Only recently has the feud between New York Railways income bondholders and the company been settled and the receivership last month of the Texas & Pacific Railroad was largely instituted by holders of the majority of the second-mortgage or income bonds of that system. A reorganization that is to be permanent and run a smooth course will avoid the income bond. A preferred stock is a less troublesome instrument in the hands of a railroad owner.

Two of the five reorganizations referred to follow the old lines of procedure, basing their exchange of securities on the strength of the bond or stockholders' position as to amount of securities controlled, etc. The other three have expressed quite different lines, and it is with them that this article means to deal in particular. For they represent an effort at placing the value of

securities where it belongs, viz., next to earning capacity.

With many investors a bond is a bond. There is very little discrimination shown as between a first-mortgage bond on a main line of a railroad or one that may be a first mortgage on a branch line or a specific division. It is regarded as an obligation that has to be met, irrespective of whether that part of the railroad covered by it is to the company's treasury an asset or a liability. Many such bonds carry a guarantee as to principal and interest endorsed by the parent company. These have sold at a considerable premium over bonds intrinsically worth much more, but not guaranteed.

Now the radical, as he will be called, of a railroad reorganization takes a very deliberate and cold-blooded view of every bond that figures in the capital structure of a receivership railroad. With him it is a question, not so much as to what the bond covers or by what collateral it is supported, as to how much the mileage, or the terminals, the bridge, elevator, or what not on which the bond is a lien, produces in net revenue. His whole scheme of financial readjustment is based on this one factor. In every railroad system there are many different classes of bonds, mortgages running from the first to the third, fourth, and fifth degrees. These bonds have been bought in good faith, if not with much intelligence. Many times they have been sold by bankers who knew as little of their merits as the man or woman who bought them. But they must now go into the crucible and be tested for their individual merits or for the residuum that they show for the company's treasury. This seems brutal, but it is the only way that a right judgment can be arrived at for a reorganization that must stand the strain of bad times. A reorganization should be built on the minimum rather than on the maximum of earning capacity.

In one of these three reorganizations the holders of first-mortgage divisional bonds have been compelled to accept stock in exchange. This at first looks like robbery, and has so been characterized. A glance at the traffic situation on that division which the bonds had covered will explain the treatment. A decade ago this division was productive, earned more than its interest charges and its proper upkeep. Economic changes in that part of the State where it is located have permanently, it seems, reduced this division to the position of a small feeder, which cannot earn interest, and therefore ought

not to be a fixed charge on the parent company. This happened in Michigan. Another illustration is drawn from a certain division, let us say, in Oklahoma or Texas, which has passed through years of trial and now is found to have permanently ceased to function in the old way. There may have been a shift in population, or a running out of the soil, or the timber, which was the source of the original revenue, has been cut, leaving lands of little agricultural value. Is it proper that this branch line or division should retain its old status any more than that an individual who has passed the point of his best business effort should continue at a maximum salary? This is the argument of the new-style reorganizers.

In all such cases a very close examination is made of the history of each portion of the system covered by the individual bond. The traffic it originates is analyzed to determine whether or not it is an essential part of the main company. It is studied from the standpoint of the effect on the whole property of its segregation. Would the benefit to go to some competitor by the independent operation of the division be sufficient to compel retention in the system? Is it valuable for strategic purposes, irrespective of its earnings? Are there agricultural or industrial developments in sight that will justify patience on the part of the reorganizers and a grant of participation to the bondholders in future equities? These are all aspects of the case that have had to be appraised at 100 per cent of their merit. When the 40,000 miles of railroad became bankrupt, between 1913 and 1916, earnings on the average were on the down grade. Most of the failures came just before and just after the war, when credit was hard to obtain and note renewals almost impossible. Those properties that have been able to bring their bond and stockholders to the point where they have accepted the exchange of securities offered are fortunate to lift their receiverships in a period of unrivaled prosperity. Had they foreseen what earnings were to be this calendar year they might have been easier with their assessments. This makes the future of the new securities so much the stronger. They were projected on the basis of poor times and issued on the crest of a boom.

In the last great reorganization period following the panic of 1893-96, the new bonds of roads that had just emerged from bankruptcy met with almost instant success. They were favored with a period of very low interest rates which lasted for some

years. But rates then were no lower than now. In the period between 1896-98 and 1902-05 ten newly created mortgages of such roads as the Atchison, Northern Pacific, Reading, Union Pacific, Frisco, and Colorado Southern advanced an average of over 35 points. This does not take into account the additional profit that holders of these bonds secured from the stocks that were given as part payment or as bonus for what had been deposited. There were also large profits made from the purchase at their low

levels of underlying or first-mortgage bonds which were undisturbed in reorganizations, but which reflected in their price the generally low credit of the company. An investment in a group of such bonds netted nearly 100 per cent. gain within ten years. Even now comparatively good profits have been made by those who have bought and held the undisturbed bonds of roads in receivership. A dozen such issues show an average advance from the low of 1915 of about thirteen points.

II.—INVESTORS' QUERIES AND ANSWERS

NO. 796—A CASE OF MISTAKEN IDENTITY

I should like to have you let me know how you would consider the investment of a few thousand dollars in Alaska 6 per cent. bonds. I notice they are selling at about 90 per cent. on the New York Stock Exchange. Also please give me the population of Alaska and its total indebtedness, and let me know how long the bonds in question have to run.

You have apparently mistaken your bonds. The 1910 census gave the Territory of Alaska a population of 64,356, but statistics do not show that the Territory has any bonded indebtedness.

What you probably have in mind are the bonds listed in the New York Stock Exchange transactions as "Alaska Gold 6's." These are the ten-year, convertible, gold debenture bonds of the Alaska Gold Mines Company. There are two series of the bonds, A and B, each outstanding to the amount of \$1,500,000. They are issued in denominations of \$100, \$500, and \$1000, and are redeemable at 110 and interest on March 1, 1918, for Series A, and March 1, 1919, for Series B, or on any interest date thereafter. They are convertible at any time prior to redemption at par into the capital stock of the company at \$30 per share. They are a direct obligation of the company, but are not secured by mortgage on physical property of any kind. The company, however, agrees not to mortgage or otherwise encumber any of its assets while any of the debentures in question are outstanding.

The Alaska Gold Mines Company was incorporated in August, 1912, and owns or controls under option approximately 2487 acres of claims and lands in the vicinity of Juneau, Alaska. It reported for the year ended December 31, 1915, total income of \$1,073,027 and total deductions from income of \$794,256, leaving net income of \$278,771, which was the equivalent of about 37 cents per share on the 75,006 shares of stock outstanding.

It is probably not amiss for us to add in a general way that the bonds we have been describing, the unsecured credit obligations of a mining company not yet established on the basis

of full productive capacity, must be given a speculative rating for securities of that type.

NO. 797—PHILADELPHIA COMPANY COMMON

Having some funds to invest, and wishing as large an income return as possible with safety, I desire your opinion on the enclosed clipping (referring to Philadelphia Company common stock as "a consistent earner and dividend payer" whose yield "seems out of line . . . due to the fact that the stock's possibilities have not as yet gained general recognition").

We are inclined to think that the opinion expressed in the clipping may not be far from the truth of the situation. As far as one can see, the franchise situation of the company in question—or, more properly speaking, the franchise situation of the various subsidiary companies under its control—is a satisfactory one.

To be sure, there is a pretty large amount of outstanding stock—for example, \$2,033,400 old preferred; \$6,171,600 new preferred; and \$42,943,000 common, paying dividends at the rates of 5, 6, and 7 per cent., respectively. But these dividend requirements appear to be covered in earnings by quite a satisfactory margin. For the fiscal year ended March 31, 1916, the company had left after the payment of both preferred and common dividends a surplus amounting to \$1,022,053.

The consistency of the common stock of the company as a dividend-payer is shown by the fact that cash dividends have been paid on it regularly each year since 1898. The record is: 4 per cent. in 1898; $4\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. in 1899; 5 per cent. in 1900; $5\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. in 1901; 6 per cent. from 1902 to 1909, inclusive; 7 per cent. in 1910 and 1911; $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. in 1912; 7 per cent. in 1913 and 1914, including $1\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. in scrip in 1914, and 6 per cent. in 1915. The dividend was increased from the 6 to the 7 per cent. annual basis again in the early part of the current year.

While the position of this stock is such that it probably ought not to be regarded as a strictly conservative investment issue, we think it is a utility of a good deal of merit.

